AN ASSESMENT OF THE SUSTAINABILITY OF THE FOOD SECURITY-
PROTRACTED RELIEF PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTED BY NON-
GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE OF THE
ZIMBABWE RED CROSS SOCIETY (2005 TO 2009)

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the
Requirement for the degree of Master of Business Administration

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Graduate School of Management

University of Zimbabwe

Supervisor: Mr. G. Magaramombe
DEDICATION

To my children Rutendo, Tonderayi, Rufaro, Tapiwa and Rumbidzayi Machiridza.
DECLARATION

I, Eunice Khosa, do hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own investigation and research, except to the extent indicated in the acknowledged sources in the body of the report, and that it has not been submitted in part or in full for any other degree at any other university or college.

Student’s Signature

Date

Supervisor’s Signature

Date
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisor, Mr. G. Magaramombe for affording time, giving guidance, constructive criticism and encouraging me to persevere, without which the dissertation would not have been completed.

I gratefully acknowledge many of my colleagues who devoted time and gave assistance with style and presentation of a dissertation; I am deeply indebted to them.

To my workmates in the Food Security Programme unit for the invaluable help in assisting with data analysis using SPSS.

To my Zimbabwe Red Cross colleagues, Mr. Lucky Goteka the then Acting Secretary General for granting me the permission to carry out the study. Special acknowledgement to Mr. Decide Mabumbo, Mr. Marshall Makuvare and Mr. Gift Musinake for their patience and assistance in explaining PRP issues and support throughout the process. I would not have made it without you.

To Mr. Matthew Bhegedhe for assisting me with the distribution of the questionnaires and conducting the research.

To my mother, late father and my brothers Phineas, Misheck, Dakarai and sister Sibongile for those wise words of encouragement.
ABSTRACT

The study focused on the assessment of the sustainability or persistence of positive effects of the Protracted Relief Programme (PRP) implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 and December, 2009. The overall objective was to assess the sustainability of the PRP implemented by NGOs in Zimbabwe after external funding ended, focusing on the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 and December, 2009.

Using the case of Chivi district, the study adopted a qualitative approach to explore the factors that have an impact on the continuity / sustainability of projects in the context of rural Zimbabwe. A sample of 108 was selected from a target population of 197. The main data collection instrument used was the questionnaire administered to beneficiaries of the programme and key informants and interview guides to focus groups and two managers.

To this effect the study argues that stakeholder consultation, beneficiary identification, beneficiary training and frequent monitoring are critical factors in determining the continuity of any project in the context of rural communities.

The study recommended that for projects to be successful and continuous there is need for a mixed beneficiary selection process, on-going training, needs assessments, capacity building at managerial level and a sound exit strategy has to be in place.

Further studies are required on the impact of management on project implementation.
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<tr>
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<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AREX</td>
<td>Agricultural and Extension Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APM</td>
<td>Association for Project Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARE</td>
<td>Co-operative Assistance and Relief Everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAFOD</td>
<td>Catholic Agency for Overseas Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIVITAS</td>
<td>City- Vitality- Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CYMMMT</td>
<td>Centre for International Maize and Wheat Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department of International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agricultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOSPAZ</td>
<td>Hospice and Palliative Care Association of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFRC</td>
<td>International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRAF</td>
<td>International Centre for Research in Agro-forestry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRISAT</td>
<td>International CROPS Research Institute for the semi-arid Tropics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M and E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Overseas Development Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCHAUN</td>
<td>Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (United Nations)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PESTLE</td>
<td>Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>PNS</td>
<td>Partner National Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMBOK</td>
<td>Project Management Book of Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMI</td>
<td>Project Management Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWOT</td>
<td>Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Emergence Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WatSan</td>
<td>Water and Sanitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZRCS</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Red Cross Society</td>
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<td>Appendix 1</td>
<td>Authority to conduct the research</td>
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<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
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CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a general introduction of the study in the following areas, background to the study, background of the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, core values of the organisation, infrastructure, partners and its structure. The chapter also highlights the statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, research proposition, scope of the study and limitations of the study. An analysis of the organisation’s environment was done using SWOT and PESTLE analysis.

1.2 Background to the study

Zimbabwe faced an economic decline from 1999 which resulted in the loss of livelihoods for the majority of the people.(http://www.prpzim.info/default/). The country’s economic environment continued on a downward trend making more and more people vulnerable. This led to the launching of the Protracted Relief Programme by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) led by the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID). The programme was termed “protracted” because the suffering of Zimbabweans had been long drawn from 1999 to 2004. The programme aimed at assisting the poorest and vulnerable, suffering from the effects of rainfall failures, economic decline and the HIV and AIDS epidemic”(DFID-Zimbabwe Protracted Relief Programme, Briefing Papers May,2007,p.1)

The programme also aimed at protecting existing livelihoods and promoting livelihoods. In order to achieve these aims a number of activities were designed and these included among others, home based care, food distributions, food vouchers and targeted inputs for agricultural support. The different partners implementing this programme chose various packages of the programme for their beneficiaries.
The implementation of livelihood programmes has always brought challenges of sustainability to International Development Agencies (IFAD, 2009, P.7). The Department for International Development (DFID) and its partners funded the project for 18 million pounds) for the initial phase (Jones, et al, 2005, p.vi). In view of the millions of dollars that donors committed to this programme it is imperative that factors that lead to the sustainability of programmes are investigated. This study therefore analysed whether such programmes are sustainable and whether persistent positive effects of a project such as assets, skills, facilities and improved services would lead to reduction in poverty among the vulnerable. The study should be able to answer the question: what makes a programme sustainable from project design, planning, implementation, supervision and continuing years after external funding ends?

1.2.1 Background of the Organisation

A Swiss businessman Henry Dunant founded the Red Cross in 1863. The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society (ZRCS) existed as a branch of the British Red Cross for 49 years until 1981 when it was established by an Act of Parliament. The Act is cited as Act 30/1981, (Chapter 17:08). (www.redcrosszim.org.zw).

The ZRCS operates in all the provinces of Zimbabwe and has 282 branches dotted throughout the country (http://www.redcrosszim.org). The organisation maintains a community presence through its volunteers which give it an insight into the needs of the vulnerable, thereby enabling the planning of relevant and appropriate interventions for the communities.

The Red Cross logo “is a visible sign of protection under the Geneva Convention” (www.icrc.org). It will be noted that countries where the Red Cross exists either use a cross or a crescent as a logo. This is a matter of choice and has no religious connotations of being Moslem or Christian.
1.2.2 The Vision

The vision of the organisation is:
“To become a dynamic voluntary organisation which leads in the satisfaction of humanitarian needs and promoting human dignity of the most vulnerable groups” (The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society 2011-2020 Strategic Plan, 2010).

1.2.3 Mission Statement

The mission statement is “to provide timely, appropriate and acceptable humanitarian services to the most vulnerable groups through well managed programmes in: i) Health and Social Services, ii) Disaster Management, iii) Food Security and Livelihoods, iv) Water and Sanitation, v) Restoration and Family Links, vi) Organisation Development, while encouraging self-reliance and the promotion of human dignity” (The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society 2011-2020 Strategic Plan, 2010).

1.2.4 Core Values

The organisation’s core values are as follows:

i) Transparency and Accountability - The organisation is committed to be transparent and accountable to the people and communities served, donors, partners and the broader Zimbabwean public.

ii) Commitment to serving humanity – The organisation is committed to protecting human life and dignity without discrimination.

iii) Integrity and Professionalism - The organisation strives to be the first to react to emergencies such as natural disasters and man-made conflicts, providing immediate relief to survivors and staying on to help people rebuild their lives and maintain their dignity. (The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society 2011-2020 Strategic Plan, 2010).
1.2.5 Infrastructure

The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society has its headquarters in Harare where it owns a five storey building in the Central Business District, two properties in Avondale, a training Centre in Kambuzuma, and offices in Highfield suburbs. It has offices in the eight provinces of the country, enabling the organisation to access the remotest parts of the country in time of need. The organisation also owns properties in the form of kiosks at the provincial and district hospitals making a total of about forty structures. It also boasts of warehouses in Harare, Gweru, Mutare and Masvingo of approximately 200 metres squared each. The warehouses are used for storing disaster equipment and they act as distribution centres in cases of disasters.

The Organisation has a radio network that links provincial offices with the Head office and vehicles. This communication link becomes handy in times of disasters and in areas where there is no mobile phone connectivity.

1.2.6 Partner Network

The International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, The International Committee of the Red Cross and the National Societies, the Zimbabwe Red Cross in this instance, form what is called the Red Cross Movement.

The International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and the International Committee of the Red Cross are Zimbabwe Red Cross’s strongest partners and the three form part of the largest Humanitarian network in the world. The Movement’s mission is to alleviate human suffering, protect life and health and uphold human dignity especially during armed conflicts and other emergencies.

The Movement is present in almost 181 countries in the World and supported by millions of volunteers (http://www.icrc.org).
Table 1.1 below shows a summary of the Zimbabwe Red Cross partners and areas of collaboration.

Table 1: Zimbabwe Red Cross Partners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partner</th>
<th>Area of Collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFCR</td>
<td>Coordination, technical and programmes support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>Technical and programmes support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-country Partner National Societies(PNS)-Danish, Finnish, French, Japanese, Netherlands, Norwegian and Swedish Red Cross</td>
<td>Technical and programmes support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National AIDS Council</td>
<td>Coordination and Resources mobilisation for Community Home Base Care (CBHC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Health Organisation Country Office</td>
<td>Technical assistance on trends, outbreaks and response in collaboration with the MOHCW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>OVC programming as well as CBHC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
<td>Food Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACP/EU</td>
<td>Water and Sanitation programme in Mount Darwin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (MOHCW)</td>
<td>Technical support, policy and coordination</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Report-IFRC-Zimbabwe Appeal no. MAAZW001 2010
Besides partnerships within The Movement, the organisation also partners with Organisations like The World Food Programme and World Health Organisation. The organisation also partnered with the Zimbabwe AIDS Network and Hospaz in the implementation of the Global Fund Round 8 (Annual Report, Zimbabwe Appeal IFRC). In the programme under study partnerships were developed with communities and specialised organisations like FAO, AREX and River of Life, IDE, ICRAF, ICRISAT, CYMMYT, Tree Africa by providing training and technical expertise to the PRP programme.

1.2.7 The Business Environment

1. Macro Environment

A PESTLE analysis was used by the researcher to describe the external environment and its effects on the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society. PESTLE is an acronym for Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal and Environmental factors. The analysis helped in understanding the “bigger picture” of the environment in which the Red Cross is operating. Kotler (1998, p.107) sates that PESTLE analysis “is a strategic tool for understanding market growth or decline, business position, potential and direction for operations”.

2. Political Environment

In 2005 Zimbabwe faced sanctions imposed by the United States of America, European Union and the Commonwealth after a ZANU (PF) Government won Parliamentary elections. (www.freedom.org) .This was on the background of seizure of white farms in 2000, a land reform exercise, although popular led to the decline in food production, thereby making more people vulnerable.

Elections held in 2008 did not bring a reprieve to Zimbabweans, as election results were disputed and led to a presidential run-off in which Morgan Tsvangirai had to withdraw because of political violence. This led to Robert Mugabe winning uncontested elections.
The economy continued to collapse and under mounting pressure, the two parties, ZANU (PF) led by Robert Mugabe and MDC led by Morgan Tsvangirayi agreed to a power sharing deal in September 2008, leading to a Government of National Unity (G.N.U.) (Freedom House, 2010).

The GNU brought some degree of stability and enabled the Red Cross to consolidate its position as a key partner in the humanitarian field. This was an opportunity to appeal for more funding to assist the vulnerable.

3. Economic Environment

The Zimbabwean Economy was declining at an estimated 4% from 2004 to 7% in 2005 (IMF Outlook). Inflation was over 400% by the end of 2005. (IMF Country Report 200). Food security was an urgent issue given the shortfall in production after the land reform exercise. The credit crunch in Europe, the isolation from the International Community and the difficulty in mobilising resources resulted in the reduction of donor activity. People’s livelihood continued to decline resulting in a massive humanitarian crisis.

Such an economic environment was an opportunity for the Red Cross to partner with the rich European Red Cross Societies and other Donor Organisations to assist in the crisis. The need for food and shelter meant that the Red Cross was going to increase its activities in helping the needy.

4. Social Environment

The inability of the Zimbabwean Government to deal with the economic and political crisis in the period under study led to a decline in service delivery in all aspects of the government. Local authorities failed to treat water in urban areas, the health system collapsed leading to an outbreak of cholera in 2008. The education system failed because teachers were being paid worthless money. Inflation was at triple digit and parents were not able to pay school fees and buy food. Zimbabweans began to leave the country in numbers leading to massive brain drain. An estimated 2.5 million people left the country (www.oecd.org ).
Operation restore order in late July, 2005, where unauthorised dwellings and structures were demolished left some 700 000 people across the country either homeless or without any source of livelihoods or both and a further 2,4 million people indirectly affected in varying degrees. (IMF Country Report no. 05/360-October, 2005 pp.1-6).

The Zimbabwe Red Cross had an opportunity to expand its programmes depending on donor assistance received. There was need to increase programmes in food security and shelter provision throughout the country.

5 Legal Environment

The Zimbabwe Red Cross is governed by the Red Cross Act which empowers it to act as an auxiliary to Government. The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society Act 30/1981 (Chapter 17:08) is the main piece of legislation that guides the Red Cross in carrying out its mandate. The Act states that the Red Cross is mandated among other things to organise emergency relief to victims of disasters in accordance with the National Plan. Such an enabling and friendly legal environment mandated the Red Cross to work in areas otherwise considered risky by other organisations.

Other pieces of legislation that give guidance to the Red Cross are the Disabled Persons Act, (Chapter 17:01), Private Voluntary Organisations Act, (Chapter 17:05) and the Social Welfare Assistance Act, (Chapter 17:06). In all these Acts the Red Cross has to comply when dealing with vulnerable persons.

1.2.8 SWOT Analysis

SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. A SWOT analysis will be used to examine the position of a business in the market and what strategies to develop to increase market share. According to Kotler (2000, p.101) “a SWOT analysis is an analysis of the internal and external environment.
A business unit has to monitor key macro-environmental forces which are (demographic, economic, technological, political, legal, social and cultural) and micro-environmental actors (customers, competitors, distributors and suppliers that affect its ability to make profit”. The SWOT analysis for the Zimbabwe Red Cross is summarised below in table 1.2.

Table 1: 2 Zimbabwe Red Cross SWOT. Analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>STRENGTHS</strong></th>
<th><strong>OPPORTUNITIES</strong></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-established by an Act of parliament hence recognised by Government.</td>
<td>-Easy to partner with the Red Crosses in developed countries for funding purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-biggest humanitarian organisation in the world-represented in 181 countries out of approximately 196 countries of the world.</td>
<td>-Expand in the urban areas and incorporate other illnesses like cancer, hypertension, and diabetes in home Based care instead of HIV only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-a well-known brand image.</td>
<td>-Trusted by the Government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-A very large volunteer base.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Apolitical.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-The President of Zimbabwe is the Patron</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>WEAKNESSES</strong></th>
<th><strong>THREATS</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Perceived to be arm of Government therefore supporter of Zanu (PF).</td>
<td>-- Failure to keep up with competition for donor funds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Poor communication network with provinces</td>
<td>- Reduction in the number of programmes and beneficiaries receiving assistance due to financial constraints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Assistance only given to people in programme areas.</td>
<td>- Home based Care as the core project when other organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Programmes only focus on assisting HIV/AIDS affected and infected leaving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
out other chronically ill like cancer, diabetes, high blood pressure.
- staff recruitment inconsistent similar grades having different qualifications.
- staff benefits and salaries based on programme funding and not qualifications.
- Reporting structures (organogram) not clear.
- Service delivery concentrated in rural areas.

have moved to the Anti-retroviral therapy.
- Management perceived to be rigid by donors.

1.2.9 Structure of the Organisation

The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society is a volunteer driven organisation with 44 000 volunteers countrywide (www.redcrosszim.org.zw). The structure of the organisation has the volunteers in the communities as its 1st level followed by a district executive council, a provincial executive council and at the top is the National Executive Council.

The National Executive Council elects members of the Governing Council who will elect the President of the Governing Council.

The Governing council is equivalent to the Board of Directors of a company. The Governing council is responsible for policy making for the organisation. The Volunteers are the implementers of programmes because they are in all the country’s provinces.

Parallel to the volunteer structure is the Secretariat which is headed by a Secretary General. The Secretary General is deputised by an Operation Manager and Finance and Administration Manager. Each province is headed by a Provincial Programmes Manager who reports to the Operations Manager. The Secretariat gives technical and material support to the volunteers for the efficient implementation of programmes.
Red Crosses the World over are part of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. This Movement constitutes the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and the International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) and the National Societies. The local National Society is the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society (ZRCS).

The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) is an impartial, neutral and independent organisation and its mission is to protect the lives and dignity of victims of war and internal violence and to provide them with physical, social and psychological support and assistance. It directs and coordinates the international relief activities conducted by the movement in situations of conflict. “It also endeavours to prevent suffering by promoting and strengthening humanitarian law and universal humanitarian principles established in 1863, the ICRC is the origin of the International Red Crescent and Red Crescent Movement (www.ifrc.org).

The International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) promotes the humanitarian activities of National Societies among the vulnerable people. It coordinates relief efforts and alleviates human suffering.

The three arms of the Red Cross that is “the ICRC, IFRC and National Societies constitutes the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.” (www.ifrc.org).

This tripartite arrangement has enabled a lot of the National Societies to partner with the rich Red Crosses from the Western World acting as donors to most of the National Societies. The rich Red Crosses would be referred to as Partnering National Society (PNS).

The organisation takes full advantage of its being part of the biggest humanitarian organisation in the World and having been locally established by an Act of Parliament, it is affiliated to the Ministries of Health and Child Welfare, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and Ministry of Defence. This gives it a unique position where the organisation works as an auxiliary to the Government and making it the preferred humanitarian organisation that the Government relies on.
The organisation is headquartered in Harare and has provincial offices in the eight provinces of Mashonaland East, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland West, Midlands, Matabeleland South, Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland. Each provincial office manages projects in its province, reporting to the Head Office.

1.3 Statement of the problem

DFID contributed millions of dollars to the Protracted Relief Programme. The project budget for the first phase was 18 million pounds (Johns et al., 2005, p.vi) and the second phase which started in 2008 and ending in 2013 was earmarked for 52,288,700, with the hope of reducing poverty and creating resilience and food secure communities (Protracted Relief Programmes-Reducing Poverty through Improved Livelihoods 2012).

Issues of sustainability / continuity after the end of external funding for the programme are a major worry to the humanitarian community, because a number of projects collapse without benefiting the intended communities. In its 2008 Annual Report on studies in the Asia Pacific Region the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) as cited in Tango International 2009 stated that sustainability was satisfactory in 67% of projects evaluated in 2007 as compared to 40% in 2002. However, 50% of the projects in 2007 passed the satisfactory mark for sustainability while 33% were not satisfactory, thereby raising questions about factors that affect project sustainability.

Concern about project management has raged on since the 1960s’ and 1970s’ (Svetlana and Damian, 2006) and yet arguments still rage on, on how best to manage projects so that they can achieve desired objectives.

In this study, the researcher therefore sought to assess the sustainability of the Protracted Relief Programme (PRP) implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society in Chivi district of Masvingo Province between January, 2005 and December, 2009. The researcher wanted to investigate what factors lead to
programme sustainability during the project life cycle from programme design, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and control.

1.4 Research objectives

The overall objective of the study was to assess the sustainability of the PRP implemented by NGOs in Zimbabwe focusing on the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 to December, 2009.

The specific objectives of the study were to:

i) Identify factors that lead to programme sustainability/continuity during programme design, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and control.

ii) Identify the extent to which consultations were done with stakeholders to determine the programme activities that increase food output and eliminate poverty.

iii) Investigate criteria for beneficiaries to the Protracted Relief Programme.

iv) Investigate if there was any form of training for the beneficiaries.

v) Investigate if programme activities were monitored by the Red Cross management.

vi) Make necessary recommendations following findings from the study.

1.5 The main research question

The research sought to provide answers to the following question:
Was the Protracted Relief Programmed implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 to December, 2009 sustainable?

1.5.1 Research Sub-Questions

The research was guided by the following sub-questions:

i) What consultations were done to come up with the appropriate programmes before they were implemented?
ii) How were beneficiaries identified for the programme?
iii) Was there any form of training given to the beneficiaries?
iv) What kind of monitoring and support was given by Red Cross Management?
v) What recommendations can be made in light of the research findings?

1.6 Proposition

The following was the study proposition:
The Protracted Relief Programme implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 to December, 2009 was not sustainable.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study is of significance in that it will benefit the following stakeholders, the researcher, the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, the humanitarian sector, the beneficiaries and communities at large as well as the Government of Zimbabwe.

1.7.1 The Researcher

The study will give the researcher an insight into programming issues with regards to projects and a practical application of project management theories and models.

1.7.2 The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society

The study is likely to benefit management in highlighting issues related to project management and the different dimensions of factors related to programme sustainability. The organisation will thus have an opportunity to reflect and take stock with a view to improving competitiveness in order to enhance its position as the preferred implementing partner by the donor community and Government.

1.7.3 The Humanitarian Sector

Non-governmental organisations could use the findings and recommendations of this study to benchmark their own performance in programme implementation of projects of the same nature, particularly agricultural based projects and other relief programmes.
1.7.4 The Government

The study will promote knowledge on programmes that can reduce poverty and factors that promote sustainability of programmes.

1.8 Scope of the study

The study sought to assess sustainability of the Protracted Relief Programme implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 to December, 2009. The study was restricted to Takavarasha of Chivi district in Masvingo.

1.9 Dissertation outline

The research is presented in five chapters as follows:-

Chapter One: Introduction and background

This Chapter introduces the study and provides a brief background of the study, background of the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society and the environment it operated in. An analysis of the business environment of the organisation is done using PESTLE and SWOT analysis. The chapter also highlights the research problem as well as the research objective, the study proposition and the significance of the study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The chapter reviews the extant literature related to the sustainability of programmes, programme management and theoretical underpinnings of project management. The chapter also highlights the different approaches to project management, the objectives of the PRP programme and gaps in literature.
Chapter Three: Research Methodology

The chapter presents the methodology on how the study was conducted, the population of the study, research design adopted, sampling techniques adopted, research instruments used, justification of the design and sampling instruments used in the study.

Chapter Four: Results and Discussion

This chapter presents the study findings and discussion of the findings. These are the findings that form the basis of conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Chapter Five: Conclusions and Recommendations

The chapter outlines the conclusions and recommendations of the study derived directly from the research findings. Furthermore, the chapter presents suggested areas of further research.

1.10 Chapter summary

The Chapter gave a brief background to the study and a background of the organisation was highlighted. PESTLE analysis was used to highlight the environment in which the organisation operated in and a SWOT analysis highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation. The structure of the organisation was given, the scope of the study and the objectives of the study were stated.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on project management and the sustainability of projects long after the completion of the project. Theories on project management are critically discussed and contrasted. The chapter also defines key concepts and terms relevant to project management. The different approaches to project management will be critically discussed and contrasted. The definition of sustainability in the context of project implementation is also discussed.

2.2 Definition of terms

2.2.1 Assessment

Assessment is defined as “a process (which may or may not be systematic) of gathering information, analysing it, and then making a judgment on the basis of the information” (IFAD, 2012).

2.2.2 Project

A project is “an activity with a definite beginning and end, it is unique in that a product or service being worked on is different in some way from similar products and services in the organisation”. (PMI: A guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge PMI 2000, P.4).

Projects can be implemented by one person or many in an organisation and may require a few months or many years to complete, involving a single unit in an organisation or may be done in partnership or joint ventures with other companies.

JISCinfonet (2012, p.1) terms it “a unique set of coordinated activities, with definite starting and finishing points, undertaken by an individual or team to meet specific objectives within defined time, cost and performance parameters.”.
JISCInfonet also explains that projects are characterised by being instruments of change, they are non-routine, unique and composed of inter-dependent activities carried out by people who normally do not work together. A project is temporary, risky and involves uncertainties and is intended to achieve a specific outcome.

Ward (2009, p.1) calls it “a temporary undertaking to create a unique product or service. It has a start and end point clearly defined and has objectives which when completed signify the completion of the project”.

The Association for Project Managers, APM (2004 cited in Banda, 2011, p.1) UK’s largest professional body for project managers defines a project as “a unique, transient endeavour undertaken to achieve a desired outcome” and The Project Management Institute PMI (2000), the World’s largest professional association defines a project as “a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product, service or result” PMI (2000 cited in Banda, 2011, p.1)

The definitions above all bring out common aspects, which are, the temporary nature of a project, having a time frame, being unique, a team or department is assigned to work on the project temporarily and be able to produce a service or product whose sustainability the study would like to investigate.

2.2.3 Project Management

“Project management is a process of leading, organising, staffing and controlling activities, people and other resources in order to achieve particular objectives” (IFAD 2012 A- 9). The objective of project management is to provide a detailed plans and set of outcomes that can be easily monitored, controlled, measured and reported on to ensure that proposed objectives are delivered in time and within the allocated budget while meeting the specified quality standards.

Tools, skills and techniques are applied to project activities in order to accomplish the objectives of a project (PMI 2000, p.1). A project should have a project manager as the focal point for reporting to the project funders periodically from the project design to the end.
2.3 Project management theory

2.3.1 Definition of Theory

Whetten (1989, cited in Koskela and Howell 2002, p. 293) defines a theory as “consisting primarily from concepts and causal relationships that relate to these concepts and provides an explanation of observed behaviour and contributes to understanding. A theory provides a prediction of future behaviour”.

“However literature on project management has no explicit theory”. Koskela and Howell (2002, cited in PMI, 2002, p.1) It has been noted that the Project Management Institute PMI (2000) in its research on project management spanning forty years has not been able to give a universally accepted report on the theory of project management. The lack of a theory might mean that the theoretical understanding is not important from project management point of view.

Kharbanda and Pinto (1996 cited in PMI, 2002) noted that “the poverty of current theory explains the other problems of project management such as frequent project failure”.

This is corroborated by the fact that in 1995 the Standish Group reported that, “31% of Information Technology (IT) projects were deemed a complete failure, 53% were late, over budget and did not meet expectations, only 9% of IT projects were delivered on time or within budget, and a mere 16% were considered successful” Svetlana and Damian, (2006, p. 114).

The importance of an unambiguous theory is seen from what it would contribute to project management as stated below by Koskela, (2000 cited in PMI, 2000 p. 294)

“A theory provides an explanation of observed behaviour and contributes thus to understanding. A theory provides a prediction of future behaviour. On the basis of the theory, tools for analysing, designing and controlling can be built. A theory, when shared, provides a common language or framework, through which the cooperation of people in collective undertaking, like project and firm
is facilitated and enabled. A theory gives direction in pinpointing the sources of further progress. When explicit, testing the validity of the theory in practice leads to learning. Innovative practices can be transferred to other settings by first extracting a theory from that practice and then applying it in target conditions. A theory can be seen as a condensed piece of knowledge it empowers novices to do the things that formerly only experts could do. It is thus instrumental in teaching (Koskela 2000, p. 294).

The PMI (2000) Guide, the lead agency in project management has put forward arguments that allude to the theory of project management. In trying to explain the theory of project management the PMI (2000) Guide divides project processes into two:

i) project management processes (theory of management) and ii) product oriented processes (theory of project). Project management processes being further divided into initiating, planning, execution, controlling and closing processes. The core processes being planning, execution and controlling (PMI 2000, Guide).

The conceptualisation of the theory of the project is about managing work by breaking down work into smaller activities and tasks as stated in the PMI (2000) Guide. The assumption underlying the concept is that the different smaller tasks are related and connected sequentially.

According to PMI, (2002 p.295) “project management crystallises with theories of operations management, indicating that it rests on the transformation theory (or view) of production, which has dominated production thinking since the 20th century”. PMI (2000). The production process called the input and output process and a transformation process operates on the inputs and outputs producing a modified form called outputs. The management of the transformation process is what is called production management.
2.3.2 Theory of Management

The PMI (2000) as already stated above identifies three core processes of the theory of management as planning, execution and controlling.

1. Theory of Planning

According to the PMI (2000), management is viewed as planning. There are nine core processes that should be followed and these are scope planning, scope definition, activity definition, resource planning, activity duration estimating, cost estimating, schedule development, cost budgeting and project plan development. The outcomes from these processes are the inputs for the next process, which is called the executing process.

2. Theory of execution

The executing process is not given prominence in the PMI (2000). “Work authorisation is only mentioned as the relationship between plan and work” (PMI p.46). This is a procedure which formalises project work making sure work is done on time and in the correct sequence. Emerson, (1917, cited in Koskela and Howell, 2002, p.297) asserts that this theory is similar to the theory of ‘job dispatching in manufacturing where it provides the interface between plan and work”. The main task being allocating tasks from a central authority to an available machine and groups of workers. The underlying theory in dispatching will be communication, where a set of symbols and voice or written speech is transmitted from sender to receiver (Shannon and Weaver, 1949 cited in Koskella and Howell, 2002 p.297), in this case from the central authority to the machine and work groups.

3. Theory of Controlling

The PMI views controlling as two sub-processes, performance reporting and overall change control. In performance reporting, corrections will be effected in the executing process if necessary and changes will be effected in the planning process. Performance reporting and the corrections that follow are similar to the “thermostat model that consist of a standard performance, which is measured at
output (or input), any variance between the standard and the measured value is used for correcting the process in order to reach the standard” Hoftstede (1978, cited in Koskela and Howell, 2002, p.5).

From the discussion above Project management appears to be based on three theories of management, namely, “management as planning, the dispatching model and the thermostat model. The three form the theoretical foundation of the present project management practice” (PMI, 2000, p.7). It therefore clearly indicates that project management lacks one acceptable theory for project management.

2.4 Approaches to Project Management

There are many formal management methodologies that have been used to help plan and manage projects. Only a few will be discussed.

i) Traditional Project Management
ii) Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK)
iii) Prince 2
iv) Prism
v) Critical chain methodology

2.4.1 The traditional approach to Project Management

Traditionally project management involves a sequence of steps, five process group stages and a control system. The PMI (2000 p.31) summarises these stages as shown in figure 2.1. The processes are also a link in a phase of project management.

These are listed below as follows;

i) initiation
ii) planning and development production
iii) execution
iv) monitoring and evaluation
v) completion
i. **Initiation**

The initiating processes, an important phase as it determines the nature and scope and success of the project. This is the stage where approval to commit organisational resources to work on the project or phase is granted and the stage involves the following;

Analysing the business, reviewing current operations, financial analysis of the costs and benefits including a budget, stakeholder analysis including users, support personnel of the project, project charter, including costs and task deliverables. (PMI, 2000).

ii. **Planning and Design**

The second stage involves formulating and revising project goals and objectives and planning to achieve the goals set. Heldman (2005, p.23) acknowledges that this process has more processes than executing, monitoring and controlling and closing processes than is stages four and five. All the other processes rely on planning and the documentation produced during planning processes in order to carry out their functions. This is clearly indicated in the diagram, where arrows between planning, executing and monitoring and evaluation is a back and forth process which constantly need re-planning.

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**Figure 2.1 Five Steps of the Traditional Approach to Project Management**

**Source:** PMI: PMBOK 2000.
Formal approval to start the project is granted at this stage and the following activities are carried out, developing the scope statement, selecting the planning team, identifying deliverables and creating the work breakdown structure and activities needed to complete the deliverables. The estimation of resource requirements, time and cost for activities and risk planning are also done at this stage.

iii. Executing

In this process what has been planned for in the previous stage is put into action. The stage involves coordinating people and resources and integrating and performing the activities of the project according to the project plan.

Approved changes are implemented at this process stage. The stage uses the most project time and resources as a result costs are usually highest at this stage.

iv. Monitoring and Controlling

This is a process of ensuring that the project execution is on track and to identify and correct any problems and ensure successful outcomes. Any variances from the plan will have to be identified. These variances might include project cost, project activities, manpower required and many others.

The processes in the stage include measuring the on-going project activities, monitoring the project variables against the project management plan and project performance baseline.

Project Monitoring is an on-going process that supports end users, correction of errors and updates of software over time. The course of the project may change during execution due to different site conditions, material availability resulting in design modifications.

These processes should not be viewed as discrete elements, rather they interact and overlap with each other, a process called interactive, where the project will be revisited and revised throughout its life, problems being corrected.
v. Closing

When the all the objectives of the project are achieved the project ends. The stage consists of finalising all activities across the group processes to close a project. Closing is important because all the documentation collected during project execution can be reviewed and utilised for future projects.

It should be noted that not all the projects follow all the stages, some keep on returning to stages ii and iii, that is planning and design and executing and some will terminate before reaching completion. The project under study followed the five traditional steps to project management.

vi. Project Controlling and Project Control Systems

Controlling and monitoring is set up as an independent function. It is verification and controlling function during project implementation.

The process involves creating infrastructure for the supply of the right information its update communication on project disparities, coming up with methods of setting up appropriate project structures, project workflow organisation, project control and governance and creation of transparency among the project parameters.

Methods of project control are cost -benefit analysis, expert surveys risk profile analysis and cost trend analysis among others. Project control helps to keep a project on track, on time and within budget.

2.4.2 The Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK)

The PMBOK is probably the most popular project methodology used in formal project management. PMI (2000,P.7).This methodology has nine knowledge areas which are ; Project Integration Management, Project Scope Management, Project Time Management, Project Cost Management, Project Quality Management, Project Human Resources Management, Project Communications Management, Project Risk Management and Project Procurement Management. An explanation of the nine will make the PMBOK well understood.
1. **Project Integration management**

The process describes the processes that coordinate the project elements, consisting of project plan development, project plan execution and overall project control.

2. **Project Scope Management**

The process describes the processes required to ensure that the project includes all the work required to complete the project successfully. It consists of initiation, scope planning, scope definition, scope verification and scope change control.

3. **Project time management**

Describes the processes required to ensure timely completion of the project. It consists of activity definition, activity sequencing, activity duration estimating, schedule development and schedule control.

4. **Project Cost management**

Describes the processes required to ensure that the project is completed within the approved budget. These processes are quality planning, cost estimating, cost budgeting and cost control.

5. **Project Quality management**

Describes the processes required to ensure that the project will satisfy the needs for which it was undertaken. It consists of quality planning, quality assurance and quality control.

6. **Human resources management**

Describes processes required for effective use of people involved in project implementation. It consists of organisational planning, staff acquisition and team development.
7. **Project communication management**

Describes the process required to ensure timely and appropriate generation, collection, dissemination, storage and ultimate disposition of project information. It consists of communications planning, information distribution, performance reporting and administrative closure.

8. **Project Risk management**

Describes the process concerned with identifying, analysing and responding to project risk.

It consists of risk identification, risk quantification, risk response development and risk response control.

9. **Project procurement management**

Describes the process required to acquire goods and services from outside the performing organisation. It consists of procurement planning; solicitation planning, source contract administration and contract close (PMI 2000 pp.7-8).

2.4.3 **Prince 2**

Prince 2 is an acronym for Projects in Controlled environments (UK government standard for management 2009, cited in Banda 2011, p.2) defines a project “as a management environment that is created for the purpose of delivering one or more business products according to specific business cases”. The method is heavily IT based and is effective for all types of projects.

It is an activity based method, where people are coordinated by activities in a project. The method describes how to design and supervise a project and adjustments can be effected if project derails from the plan. Activities are divided into manageable steps in order to control resources efficiently. Adaptation of roles
and responsibilities of personnel in the project have to conform to the new conditions.

2.4.4 Prism

Prism is an acronym for Projects Integrating Sustainable Methods. Green Project Management (2009, p.1) defines Prism as “a process based, structured project management methodology that highlights five areas of sustainability. It is a repeatable, practical and proactive methodology that ensures project success while decreasing an organisation’s negative environmental impact.”

When used effectively the method reduces environmental impact in all types of projects. It focuses on specific areas and incorporates best practices to address the question of how concepts can be applied in projects. It considers People, Planet and Profit and how they relate to the delivery of projects. Its main strength is impact analysis where the risk of a project is measured from the initial stage to the end.

2.4.5 Critical Chain projects Management (CCPM)

According to Faucheux (2011, p.1) “a critical chain method is a set of practices that emphasise the resources needed in order to complete a project”. Kumar (2010, p.1) states that “It is a management strategy devised to ensure timely completion of a multistep project, by focusing on the critical task and planning all other steps with an equal probability of delay or early completion”. The approach emphasises planning and managing of resources required to execute a project. It is the opposite of the traditional method in that it does not assign more time to each task to take care of delays to complete a task. It therefore allows projects to finish earlier than scheduled.

CCPM is based on the theory of constraints, which states that “a chain is no stronger than its weakest link”. This means that, processes and organisations are vulnerable because the weakest person or part can always damage or break them or at least negatively affect the outcome. Its analytical approach is that an
organisation’s system is limited in achieving its goals by a number of small constraints and that there is always at least one constraint. The theory of constraints therefore seeks to identify these constraints and work around them so that an organisation can achieve its goals.

According to Kumar (2010, p.1), the rationale of CCPM is that if more time is assigned to each task in order to take care of possible delays from uncertainties, and even if those uncertainties do not exist, the team working on the project will generally use all the allocated time. This means the completion of a project automatically gets delayed even if it could be done in a shorter period of time. Kumar argues that according to the philosophy of CCPM, this is the cause of delays in projects.

CCPM therefore tries to take care of the problem of providing more time for completion of individual task projects which is multi-tasking. He further asserts that CCPM points at avoiding Parkinson’s Law (”work expands to fill the time allotted for it” and student syndrome, which refers to the phenomenon of starting to fully apply oneself to a task just at the last possible moment before a deadline” (Kumar 2010, P.2).

2.4.6 The difference between CCPM and the Traditional Project Management

Studies have shown that CCPM significantly reduces project delay. If CCPM is properly implemented it leads to “in time, within budget” completion of projects in 95% of cases. In the traditional methods delays are observed in 50% of the projects leading to doubling of project costs than originally intended’ Kumar (2010 p.2). The main cause of delays in the traditional methods as already stated is the addition of safety net of time in project processes which will lead to delays.

2.4.7 Event Chain Methodology

“Event Chain Methodology is an uncertain modelling and schedule network analysis technique focused on identifying and managing events and specific event chains that have an effect on schedules” (Jakowski 2012, p.1). It reduces biases that may have a negative impression about an organisation.
Removal of uncertainties in a project’s life cycle leads to:

“simplified schedule network analysis models, improved accurate project planning and meeting of deadlines appropriately, diminishing the impact of known and unknown project planning prejudices, creating an error-free project schedule by providing flexible layouts, increasing the ability of the project managers to visualise the chain of events that are disturbing the outcomes and giving way to lots of quantitative analysis models that are very accurate to identify the potential events that are affecting projects” (Jawoski 2012, p.1).

Event Chain is based on the following six principles,

1. **Probabilistic moment of risk**

In real life processes activities are not continuous processes, external factors affect events at any one point.

2. **Event Chain**

Events can cause other events creating a chain, thereby affecting the course of the project negatively or positively.

3. **Critical events or event chains**

The single events or event chains that have the most potential to affect the projects are the critical events or critical event chains. Sensitivity analysis is used to identify such events. The analysis helps to identify the events, variations, responses and project changes that occur under different conditions.

4. **Project trading with events**

It is possible to refine information about future potential events even if a project is partially completed and data about project duration, cost and events are available.
5. Event chain visualisation

Events and event chains can be done through a Gantt chart where all team members view information in a way easy to follow.

6. Performance Measurement Related to Event and Event Chain

Historical data is normally used to measure the performance of a project. Such data is used by project managers to determine whether an event or event chain can have an impact on the project outcomes or not. It should however be noted that historical data is appropriate to identify such events” (Lakshminarasimhan 2011, p.1).

2.4.8 Agile Project Management

Rouse (2011 p.1) defines agile project management as “an interactive approach to planning and guiding project processes”. CollabNet (2008, p.1 ) asserts that “it is used in software development and helps teams to respond to the unpredictability of building software through incremental, interactive work cadences, known as sprints”

The methodology attempts to provide opportunities to assess the direction of a project throughout the development lifecycle. Every aspect of the project in the cycle, requirements and designs is continually revisited. When a team stops and re-evaluates the direction of a project every two weeks there is always time to steer it in another direction.

The definition of a project by PMI (2000) is closely related to the way the projects in the PRP were implemented. The Prince 2, Prism and the Critical Chain Management approaches appear to be more applicable in a manufacturing set up than in humanitarian relief projects like the PRP programme.

2.5 Defining a programme

Sil International (1999, p.1) defines a programme as “a planned sequence of combination of activities designed to achieve specified goals”. A programme
generally has the following features: equipment, materials, money, personnel and time. Ward (2009, p.2) on the other hand looks at a programme as “a group of related projects which when implemented in a coordinated way benefits the organisation more than if they were implemented separately”.

According to Ants Project Management Consultants (2013, p.1 ) a programme is a “temporary flexible organisation structure created to coordinate, direct and oversee the implementation of a set of related projects and activities in order to deliver outcomes and benefits relating to an organisation’s strategic objective. A programme therefore delivers change to an organisation through the coordination of a number of related projects and has a longer lifespan than a project”.

The PMI (2000, p.8) defines a programme as” a group of projects managed in a coordinated way to obtain benefits not available from managing them individually”. In some cases programmes include elements of an ongoing operation in cases where programme managers responsible for individual projects are also responsible for the coordination of other ongoing operations.

Programmes may also involve a series of repetitive or cyclical undertaking. For example, Non-Governmental Organisations might have a fundraising programme as on-going activity with sub-activities like membership drive, publishing a newspaper or magazine as projects. The periodical would be an on-going activity but each individual issue of the magazine is a project.

2.5.1 Programme Management

The management of a collection of projects is called programme management. It involves centrally managing and coordinating groups of related projects to meet objectives of the programme (Heldman 2005, p.7).

The advantage of managing projects as a programme is that it eliminates the risk arising from the interface between the projects, it helps to prioritise on the use of resources and resources are shared across projects and it reduces management effort.

The definition by Heldman and JISC’s puts the study into context. The PRP consisted of a number of projects which had to be managed together as a programme. The projects in the PRP programme were provision of agricultural inputs, agro-forestry, nutrition promotion, herbal gardens, improved farming methods, conservation farming and water and sanitation among others. All these projects had to be centrally managed in order to share resources and reduce management effort.

2.6 Defining sustainability

The study relied mostly on literature from case studies on projects funded by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) undertaken in Asia.

Projects such as cash crop production, agro-forestry, road construction and many others (Tango International, p.9) were quite similar to the PRP programme in Zimbabwe.

The IFAD Glossary of M&E Concepts and Terms (2012 p-A11) defines sustainability as “The likelihood that the positive effects of a project (such as assets, skills, facilities or improved services) will persist for an extended period after the external assistance ends”.

It has been argued that sustainability is a term with multiple definitions, although they all imply the continuation of a programme at the end of its life. However, there are notable differences as authors on the subject debate about whether the focus is on continuation of the benefits of the programme to participants or the continuation of the new initiative itself or the process of developing local capacity
to enable the programme to be maintained at the community level (Harvey and Hurworth, 2006, p.37).

The American Indian Development Associates (2001, p.1) defines sustainability as “maintaining and continuing programme services after the funding period is over”. It is, therefore, possible for programmes to become permanent features of a community even if it means the programme might be modified to suit the community as it changes and evolves over time. The most successful components of the projects become part of the lessons learnt and contribute to positive change.

Tango International (2009, p.8) defines sustainability as “ensuring that the institutions supported through projects and the benefits realised are maintained and continue after the end of the project without continued external assistance in the long run”. This definition brings to the fore the dimension of institutions involved in programme implementation as another aspect of sustainability.

The PRP programme falls in line with the Tango’s definition as sustainability of the programme looks at skills transfer to the local institutions, elimination of poverty within the community and bringing positive change to the community.

2.6.1 Multiple Dimensions of sustainability

Four essential dimensions to sustainability of programmes have also been identified by Tango International. These dimensions are important in that they manifest themselves in the different stages of the project lifecycle and processes as already explained.

“Institutional Sustainability: In order to have sustainable programme, institutions involved in programme implementation should be self-sustaining after the project ends. These institutions are the people, private sector organisations or government institutions.

Household and Community resilience: Communities which are resilient can easily adopt to change through cohesion and
collaboration and internal management of resources in the community.

**Environmental sustainability**: a well-managed environment avoids overpopulation of resources and is able to sustain its resources thereby preserving biodiversity.

**Structural change**: empowering the poor and marginalised in the community would lead to changes in the issues that cause poverty” Tango International (2008 p.16)

Besides the factors mentioned above listed below are other factors by the same authors that directly affect programme implementation.

“1. Political sustainability: this involves Government commitment and a political environment that enables programme continuation to be of importance.
2. Social sustainability: social support and cohesion and commitment to working together and achieve success. This is very important in a community.
3. Ownership: communities should have buy-in from the start of the programme in order to achieve sustainability.
4. Economic and financial sustainability: programmes should be financially viable and be able to withstand economic shock.
5. Technical sustainability: appropriate technology and training, availability of spare parts and maintenance services enhances sustainability” (Tango International, 2009, p.15).

Another dimension to sustainability is to build household and community resilience where communities are able to adapt to unexpected changes in the environment without collapsing. It refers to the ability of a community to recover after a disaster. This is done through community cohesion, collaboration and resource management.

The most difficult dimension is addressing the structural dimensions of poverty that perpetuate social inequality. This dimension involves empowering poor individuals and marginalised rural households to overcome poverty through
markets and access to social services. This involves ensuring active participation in project planning and decision making processes of those who are traditionally not heard. This will take decades to happen as it involves changing people’s mind-set (Tango International, 2009, p.17).

**2.6.2 Programme Processes Supporting Sustainability**

The following project processes are very important in ensuring programme sustainability.

1. **Design**

There are two models which have been identified that lead to programme sustainability. The first one is “the market led programmes model that implements infrastructure, credit and agribusiness projects with the primary purpose of increasing access to markets” (Tango International 2009, p.19). In areas with strong institutions, accessible markets and various income generating opportunities, it would be appropriate to link households and markets and focus on value chain.

The second one is the community programme model where communities are encouraged to form self-help groups to encourage sustainability.

Such an approach would be more suitable in “areas isolated from commercial centres, lack access to agricultural and other markets and are characterised by district ethnic majorities, weak institutions and strong community cohesiveness” (Tango International 2008 p.21).

2. **Implementation**

Programme implementation is crucial for the sustainability of a programme. Encouraging participatory approaches, remaining flexible in the face of setbacks and strengthening the capacity of stakeholders to plan and manage future actions lead to programme sustainability. Programme risks should be anticipated and identified and strategies planned on how to mitigate them.
Listed below are factors that assist in nurturing sustainability in programme implementation (Tango International 2008 P.8).

- Project objectives must be clear, and account for important assumptions and should be achievable.

- Projects need to build systematic institutional, economic, social and risk analysis and risk mitigation into design and implementation.

- A clear exit strategy must be planned and agreed on by key stakeholders during the design phase and used as a reference point throughout the programme implementation.

3. Supervision

Direct Supervision has been recommended in order to foster sustainability of projects. “Direct supervision by donors allows more bottom-up project design, involving stakeholders and project participants at every stage of the process” (Tango International 2009 p.10). Involvement of this nature would enhance project effectiveness and greatly increase project sustainability.

4. Evaluation

Field studies have indicated that there has been a lack of monitoring and evaluation (M&E) practices that contribute to the sustainability of projects (Tango International 2009) states how critical M&E is in ensuring sustainability of programmes. Sustainability criteria are actually identified and methods of measurement described within the M&E system. The M&E system should also be the source of information for anyone seeking to determine the extent to which progress towards sustainable outcomes has been achieved.

2.6.3 Constraints on sustainability

Tango International (2009) identified the following as constraints in designing and implementing sustainable programmes;
1. Lack of risk assessment before project design leads to constraints in sustainability. In areas where there are perennial disasters, risk factors should be known before a project is designed so that risk management strategies could be identified.

2. In some instances projects are designed for areas where they are not sustainable. This might happen where contextual issues are not considered and market driven projects are designed where there is a lack of infrastructure and financial services.

2. Inadequate targeting also compromises programme sustainability especially where the marginalised groups are left out of the Interventions that should benefit them.

2.6.4 Exit Strategy

According to (Tango International 2008, p.48) an exit strategy is “a specific plan describing how the programme will withdraw from the region or population while ensuring that the achievements of development goals is not jeopardised”. Hall, (2012, p.1) states that “an exit strategy is planning needed to complete the project and get the best value from the work that has been funded. The Management School of Switzerland defines it as a disengagement strategy to withdraw responsibly, and should be part of the programme and project plan.

Exiting from a programme would mean withdrawing material goods, human resources and technical assistance when a project ends. These exit strategies might result in a project moving into a second phase of a project or terminating assistance altogether. The inability to plan for an exit negatively affects the results of a programme.

2.7 The protracted relief programme

The goal of the PRP programme was to reduce poverty in Zimbabwe. (http://www.prpzim.info/default/) It operated within three spheres of influence as
shown in the figure 2.1 below. Partners in the PRP evaluated their activities using the three pillars which were;

i. To prevent destitution of the poor and vulnerable
ii. To protect existing livelihoods
iii. To promote improved livelihoods

The goals of the programme overlap within the three aims as indicated by the diagram.

![Figure 2:2 Three Spheres of PRP](http://www.prpzim.info/default/default.cfm?linkid=1&)

**Figure 2:2 Three Spheres of PRP**

**Source: PRP:** ([http://www.prpzim.info/default/default.cfm?linkid=1&](http://www.prpzim.info/default/default.cfm?linkid=1&))

The Protracted Relief Programme which began in 2005 in the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society was “designed to stabilise the food security and protect the livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable households” (Jones et al, 2005, p.vi ).

According to the Department for International Development (DFID)- Zimbabwe Protracted Relief Programme Briefing Papers (2007, p.1) the programme aimed at “assisting the poorest and most vulnerable households in Zimbabwe suffering from the effects of rainfall failures, economic decline and the HIV and Aids epidemic”.
The programme was funded by DFID with a total budget of 30 million pounds until July, 2007. Implementation of the programme by all the major twelve NGOs called implementing partners (IPs) was expected to reach 200,000 households directly and 50,000 households indirectly. DFID Zimbabwe Protracted Relief Programme (2007). Zimbabwe Red Cross Society was one of the implementing partners.

A variety of Social Protection Interventions were undertaken by Government and the many donor agencies as shown in table below.

**Table 2: 1 Social Protection Interventions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERVENTIONS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Targeted inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Cash transfers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Food vouchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Food distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. School fee waivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Block grants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. School feeding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii. Home-based care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix. Savings/credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x. Public works</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: PRP Report No.1 November 2008 p.3*

Other activities in the programme included direct promotion and improved agricultural technologies like conservation farming, gardens, support to health and hygiene and care for households suffering from HIV/AIDS among other activities. Most of the activities were designed to increase food production and to provide home based care for the chronically ill.
The coordination of the programme was managed by “a Technical Learning and Coordination Unit (TLC) and agricultural technical services were provided by three International research centres present in Zimbabwe.” (Jones et al 2005, p.1). The three research centres were ICRAF, ICRISAT and CIMMYT and UN agencies.

2.8 Specific objectives of the study

2.8.1 Stakeholder Consultation in Project Management

The African Development Bank Handbook on Stakeholder Consultation and Participation in ADB Operations (2001,p.2) defines a stakeholder as “people/communities who may directly or indirectly, positively or negatively affect or are affected by the outcome of projects or programs”.

The IFAD Glossary for M & E Concepts and Terms (p. A-10) defines stakeholder as “an agency, organisation, group or individual who has a direct or indirect interest in the project/programme or who affects or is affected positively or negatively by the implementation and outcome of it”.

Both the African Development Bank and IFAD explain that stakeholders could be primary stakeholders and secondary stakeholders. The primary stakeholders are those beneficiaries directly affected positively or negatively. They include local populations (individuals and community based organisations in the project/programme area. Usually these would be vulnerable people, poor and marginalised.

The secondary stakeholders would be those who influence development intervention or are directly affected by it, for example the borrowing government, line ministry, project staff, implementing agencies, local governments, civil society organisations, private sector firms, the bank and its shareholders and other development agencies.

The Civitus Handbook (2006, p.9) defines primary and secondary stakeholders just as the two above but has another classification of what they call a key actor
who is defined as “those who have power or expertise and Intermediaries: those who have an influence on the implementation of decisions, or have a stake in the issue such as transport operators, NGOs and the media”.

The most important factor in beneficiary consultation is the ability of project implementers to identify stakeholders, their needs, interests, relative power and potential impact on project outcomes. The ADB handbook indicates that consultation involve the following:

i. Communicating with people on all levels.
ii. Involve stakeholders in all stages of the project cycle.
iii. Ensure a voice for women and other groups that have been excluded or ignored.
iv. Promoting the role of civil society in the development process.
v. Use participatory methods and techniques.
vi. Establishing mechanisms for decentralised decision making and
vii. Support the capacity-building of local institutions.

The performance of a project is enhanced by consultation and “evidence shows that participation is an important means whereby the quality, impact and sustainability of development policies and projects or programs can be enhanced” (ADB Handbook 2001, P3).

Critics of participatory projects, where stakeholders are consulted argue that such a process increases the cost of a project. It is a fact that initial costs are higher in terms of resources and time because consultants will be involved in field visits and workshops. However, these costs outweigh the benefits derived from the consultations Project implementers might find it difficult to get co-operation from Governments which might lack the political will to allow widespread participation for fear of losing influence among its subjects. It might also be difficult to access the beneficiaries and there might be a challenge in coordinating efforts with other on-going consultants/participatory processes, hence the need to consult stakeholders (ADB Handbook, 2001, p.5).
2.8.2 Beneficiary Selection Criteria

In a report by Morestin, Grant and Ridde (2009, p.3) of the University de Montreal Canada it has been noted that “no strategy for identifying the poor is perfect”. In trying to come up with a selection criteria, they collected 52 documents which represented 68 experiences of identifying the poor and 27 of the experiences were from Sub-Saharan Africa. (Morestin, Grant and Ridde, 2009) came up with the following processes;

1. Administrative processes- where the technocrats and project managers decide the criteria. These technocrats could be Government officials or the NGO itself.

2. Based processes-This is a participative process where the community comprising of the consulting members, the general population and specific groups which could be, religious, leaders, local leaders and community activists hold group discussions to come up with the criteria. However this was only used in 17% of the cases surveyed.

3. Mixed processes-In mixed processes the NGO would suggest the criteria and communicate it to the community which would simply adapt the criteria. This was however used in 7% of the cases.

Morestin, Grant and Ridde (2009, p.3) state “that different organisations have different criteria for beneficiary selection, however it is noted that organisations have poverty dimensions that are generally accepted when selecting beneficiaries for a poverty alleviation project”. Below is a list of the dimensions generally used,

1. **Possession of goods and means of production**: The criteria look at whether the household owns or rents land and whether a family has tools for cultivation and livestock.

2. **Household Composition**: Size and demographic structure of the household is considered and the materials that were used to construct the house, whether it is a pole and dagga house or brick under tile.
3. **Income**
A household income, whether a daily, weekly wage or monthly salary. The lower the salary or absence of income in relation to the size of the household would be used to determine level of poverty.

4. **Type of dwelling: Quality** of the house, material used, number of rooms in relation to people living in the house and sometimes the geographical location of the house is also considered.

5. **Occupational Status**
One’s status, whether a domestic worker, a vendor beggar or sex worker and whether one is retired or unemployed.

6. **Food Security**
Malnutrition and its effects are also considered. Supply of food, whether basic or balanced and number of meals per day.

7. **Health Status**
Chronic diseases that have been contracted over a period of time are also considered for example, Tuberculosis, leprosy, physical and mental disability which might render one not to be able to work are also pointers to poverty.

8. **Education level**
The level of education and degree of literacy within a household and number of children not attending school

9. **Access to basic Services and Credit**
Sanitation facilities, access to electricity, fresh water were also considered. In some instances the ability to have a bank account or savings account is also considered.

10. **Expenses**
The amount of money spent by a family per week, or month for its upkeep is also considered. These are usually food expenses. An expenditure of $1.00 per day or less would be considered poor. (Morestin Grant and Ridde 2009, p.3).

It should be noted that the above criteria for beneficiary selection are not universally applied. The different dimensions depend on the level of economic development of a community. Programme managers with the assistance of
Government officers and community leaders would assist with beneficiary selection.

2.8.3 Beneficiary Training in Project Management

The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) in its paper, Participatory Development Guidelines to Beneficiary Participation states the main objective of training as:

1. To enhance the social and economic conditions of the poor.
2. To make beneficiaries active and productive as members and group leaders.
3. To encourage project participants come up with adequate training content, methods and materials (Heck, 2003).

The training methods that are used could be the conventional training, that is, the classroom, teacher – pupil, top to bottom approach. In this training, materials to be taught are pre-planned and the beneficiaries have to take whatever they are taught.

Training can also be participatory where the beneficiaries come up with areas they need training. This method recognises the importance of beneficiaries as people who are aware of their knowledge gap and can be used as resource persons. The method also facilitates learning from each other, encourages team work and helps beneficiaries to link theory with practical issues on the ground. The type of training could be general subject matters like team building, group dynamics, planning of group activities, accounting, monitoring and many others or could be specialised as in horticulture, fisheries, forestry and others.

The target groups for training for a project are: the intended beneficiaries, project staff and all agents participating in the project, like Government officers and NGO staff, local/community leaders and influential people in the community. The trainers are usually from the Donor agencies, Government Ministries or Technocrats in the field.
Beneficiary training should be an on-going, participatory and pragmatic problem solving activity for problems encountered in project implementation. Training should also be self-learning, individually or for a team and dialogue and cooperation between the trainer and beneficiary should be on equal terms without distinguishing the trainer and the trained (FAO. 2001, p.1).

2.8.4 Monitoring and programme activities

Monitoring and Control process groups are processes performed for observing execution of the project in order to identify and correct problems timeously (PMBOK 2000). On the other hand the IFAD Glossary on M & E Concepts and Terms( 2012) defines monitoring as “ the regular collection and analysis of information to assist timely decision-making, ensure accountability and provide the basis for evaluation and learning” Collection of information for management and stakeholders would be continuous in order to give them indications of progress and achievement of objectives.

Monitoring and controlling are done in order be proactive in detecting problems and any deviations from the planned activities and being able to take corrective action. The PMI (2000 p. 30 ) states that the project execution process group activities happen parallel with the project monitoring and control activities hence the need to measure and monitor progress according to the project plan.

The project manager should always make sure the project team would be working on the correct activities, are on schedule and within budget and that the work would be of acceptable quality and control activities would be activated when deviations from the plan are noticed ( Monitoring and Controlling Project Management Step 2011-2013).

When managing the project, information on performance would be collected and used to compile performance reports as well as status report, progress reports and forecast reports.
2.9 Gaps in literature

Koskella (2000 cited in Project Management Institute proceedings of the PMI Research Conference 2002) argues that, “the three concepts of production are not alternative, competing theories of production, but rather partial and complementary, the production theory requires related tools that fully integrate the transformation flow and value concepts, production should be viewed simultaneously from the three points of view of transformation, flow and value”.

Svetlana and Damian (2006, p.111) quoted a number of writers: Koskella and Howell (2002), Morris (1997) and Mayor (1999, 2001) who have advocated for a revisiting of the dominant doctrines of project management for their failure to come up with an explicit theory on project management. Extant literature as explained above indicates that there has been little progress in that direction. A lot of work has therefore been directed at “improving traditional models and skills to explain the true nature of projects or for a method of project management based on critical success factors with the assumption that such an ideal model can objectively exist in the world of practice” Svetlana and Damian (2006, p.112). However, there is little evidence that all this effort has contributed to (constructive debate in the field or to the resolution of difficulties encountered in practice.

General management literature views effective leadership as a critical success factor in the management of organisations (Turner and Muller 2005, cited in Toor, Ofori and Arain 2007, p.32). It has been noted that “literature on project management success factors does not typically mention the project manager and his or her leadership style or competence as a success factor on managing projects”. Notable is the limited description of leadership in the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK 2000) and notes the subject as “terra incognita”, unknown territory.” The situation has remained the same after a decade and (PMBOK 2000) still provides little discussion on leadership (Toor, Ofori and Arain, 2007, p.32). Therefore there is need for more research on the effect of leadership or management skills on project/ programme management.
2.10 Conceptual framework

Literature was reviewed and the following is the conceptual framework for the study shown in figure 2.1. Jabareen (2009, p.51) defines a conceptual framework as a network, or a “plane” of interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon or phenomena”. Lewis (2001, p.2) notes that a framework enhances a research study because it “identifies variables and clarifies relationships among the variables. It is linked to the problem statement and “sets the stage” for presentation of the specific research question that drives the investigation being reported”

A framework shows the road map on how the study intends to resolve the statement of the problem and helps explain why certain methods are preferred to solve the problem.

![Diagram of project management showing stakeholder identification, stakeholder consultations, beneficiary selection, beneficiary training, availability of inputs in time, project monitoring and control, and exit strategy as steps in project management leading to achievement of programme objectives.]

**Figure 2.3 Framework Linking Sustainability and poverty reduction**

The conceptual framework above reveals that proper management of the programme would lead to the achievement of research objectives which are poverty reduction, community resilience and food secure communities.
Sustainability or the continuation of the programme long after external funding ends would be measured by increased disposable income for families, type of house that a family leaves in, livestock ownership, level of malnutrition in the household, health status, education level of the household and many of the dimensions used to measure poverty in a household.

2.11 Chapter summary

The chapter reviewed current literature on project management, thereby defining assessment, a project and project management, programme and programme management. A number of project management approaches were also discussed with the PMBOK being noted as the most popular formal project methodology.

The objectives of the PRP programme, its approximate budget and areas of intervention were stated. Multiple dimensions which lead to programme sustainability and those that detract programmes from being sustainable were also discussed based on a case study by Tango International in Asia. Management of these dimensions throughout the project processes ensure project sustainability.

A conceptual framework linking programme management to sustainability was depicted where the research variables have a direct impact on the final outcome.

Literature review of the study was discussed, and gaps in literature were noted as the lack of an explicit theory in project management and the absence of the project manager as key to the success of a project.
CHAPTER 3 : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology adopted to conduct the research and explain why a particular method was chosen. It outlines the research philosophy, research design and research strategies adopted. The chapter further discusses the population studied, the sampling methods and sample size of the study and data collection instruments used. Research limitations and ethics are also discussed.

Research methodology is very important because the method that a researcher chooses to conduct his/her research indeed determines the quality of the final product (Kidder 1981 cited in Shaukat, 1998, p.7). It also determines the validity and reliability of the data collected and also impacts on the confidence that users of the product will place on the conclusions derived from the data.

3.2 Research Design

The Business dictionary defines a research design as “a detailed outline of how an investigation will take place. A research design will typically include how data is to be collected, what instruments will be employed, how the instruments will be used and the intended means for analysing collected data”. (www.businessdictionary.com/definition/research-design.html).

Ghauri, Granhaug and Kristianslund (1995) as cited in Shaukat (1998, p.5) state that “a research design is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problems to the pertinent and achievable empirical research”. Empirical research is undertaken to answer research questions therefore the appropriate research designs need to be effective in producing the required answers within the constraints placed on the researcher.
Kulka (1982) cited in Shaukat (1998, p.3) comments that the choice and formulation of research problems are more often than not largely influenced by such facts as availability of funds and ease of access to data, rather than philosophical considerations. Due to time and financial constraints the researcher managed to carry out the survey in only one area of Chivi where the PRP programme was implemented.

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

The development of a research background, research knowledge and how it is developed is the research philosophy, (Saunders and Thornhill, 2007). It is a belief on how data about a phenomenon can be collected, analysed and used. (Saunders et al, 2009 p.107 and 108) call it “development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge, influenced by one’s view of the relationship between knowledge and the process by which it is developed”. This philosophy has ontological assumptions which are assumptions about ‘what’ can be known, the things we believe exist and are able to be investigated. There are also epistemological assumptions, which are assumption about “how” knowledge is derived. They are concerned with the ways in which the reality can be known (Rahman 2010, P.1).

Research philosophy is also defined with the help of research paradigm. Paradigm is a philosophy that guides on how to conduct a research (Gliner and Morgan, 2000). According to Gliner and Morgan (2000, p 17), “it is not strictly a methodology, but more of a philosophy that guides how the research is to be conducted”. Paradigm and philosophy consist of factors like the researcher’s perception, frame of mind and beliefs towards reality. There are three main philosophies of research, which are positivism, interpretivism and Realism. The study is based on the philosophy of interpretivism on which is concerned with the qualitative phenomenon on which the study is based.
3.2.2. Interpretivism

Interpretivism is concerned with human perception of the world. The focus of the philosophy is in words and social processes and not numbers as the positivists, it emphasizes the difference between carrying out a research among people and objects like cars and computers (Saunders et al., 2009).

In this study the researcher investigated the sustainability of the PRP programme by using a sample to come up with views of the population involved in the programme (Kasi, 2009), but however there are several factors which should be considered, like individuals with different living standards, differences in social and cultural environments, personality and family groups that affect the nature of peoples’ beliefs and values.

Interpretivism is a qualitative approach which aims to discover human behaviour. It is concerned with qualitative phenomenon relating to how people feel or what they think about a subject in question. This approach was used in assessing the PRP programme because it gives multiple sources of data which range from observation, case studies, interviews, surveys and questionnaires. The method affords the opportunity to examine the process of “why” and” how” and not just “what” to assess the sustainability of the PRP programme in Takavarasha of Chivi district in Masvingo.

3.3 Research Strategy

The methodology that one adopts to investigate a research question is the research strategy. The methodology assists in answering the research question systematically. (Saunders 2003)

Yin (2003, p.1) states that research strategies can be used for exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research although there are a number of strategies one could employ. (Saunders et al., 2009) emphasises that what is most important is whether the strategy will be able to answer particular research question(s) and meet research objectives. The following are the strategies suggested;
experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research.

This study focused on the survey and case study strategies because of time and financial constraints. (Saunders et al, 2009, p.141) point out that the “choice of strategy will be guided by research questions, objectives, extent of existing knowledge, amount of time, other resources and philosophical underpinnings”.

### 3.3.1 Case Study

According to Yin, (1984, p.1) “a case study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used”.

Yin (2003, p.1) points out that “Case studies are the preferred strategy when the “how” and “why” questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context”.

The investigation used the case study approach in order to capture the circumstances and conditions of the programme because it represented a typical case of the PRP programme within the Red Cross Society (Yin, 2003). The study was narrowed down to one organization, the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society and one area Takavarasha of Chivi district in Masvingo. The study investigated the sustainability of the PRP programme implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross. However, the method is criticised for not establishing reliability and for limited generalisability of the findings and that intense exposure to the study of the case brings bias to the findings.

This method narrows down a very broad field of research into one easily researchable topic Shuttleworth (2008, p.1). Case studies often lead to testable hypothesis and allow study of rare phenomenon. According to Soy (1997, p.8 )
the case study can be used “to build upon theory, to produce new theory, to
dispute or challenge a theory, to explain a situation, to provide a basis to apply
solutions to situations and to explore or to describe an object or phenomenon.”

3.3.2 Survey Method

A survey research is commonly associated with the deductive approach which is
associated with the positivist philosophy and it is based on qualitative research. It
answers the who, what, where, how much and how many questions. Therefore it
uses exploratory and descriptive research.

The cross sectional survey approach was used, where scheduled interviews using
questionnaires were administered to collect data for assessing the sustainability of
the PRP programme in Takavarasha of Chivi district.

Questionnaires used both open – ended questions to allow for greater variety of
responses well as closed questions. Open - ended questions are difficult to
analyse because of the need to code data before analysis. Closed ended
questions limit responses participants give but are easy to code when analysing.
The researcher also used scaled responses, for example, strongly agree,
disagree, agree or strongly agree as responses, and these were easy to analyse.

The advantage of a survey in the study was that it was economical to collect data
by using a research assistant familiar with the area. Its limitations are in the detail
that one can collect in the closed questions s they allow elaborating.

3.4 Research methodology and research methods

New Age International (1978, p.7) defines research methods as “all those
methods/techniques that are used for conducting a research. All the methods
which are used by the researcher during the course of a research are termed
research methods”. These methods include those used for the collection of data,
statistical techniques used for establishing relationships between the data and the unknowns and the methods used to evaluate the accuracy of the results obtained.

On the other hand, methodology “is a way to systematically solve the research problem” (New Age International (1978, p.8). It is the various steps that the researcher uses in solving the research problem. The researcher should be aware of the different techniques to use for particular researches and why. The research method is therefore part of the research methodology. This process of making such a decision in studying a research problem is the methodology of the research; hence one has to choose whether to apply the qualitative or quantitative research or both and justifying why. In this regard a qualitative approach was used to investigate the research problem on the sustainability of the PRP programme in Chivi.

3.4.1. Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a method to develop new ideas and study phenomenon in great detail and understanding (Trochim, 2006). (Wright 1995 as cited in Shaukat 1998, p. 7) describes qualitative research “as a research where number counting and statistical techniques are not the issue. It is more flexible as it gives more sources of data which range from observation, case studies, interviews, surveys and questionnaires and answers the “why” “how’ and not just the “what”; in exploring issues”.

The researcher applied the qualitative methods in the form of semi structured interviews for the focus group discussions and the management of the programme at Head office and at the province.

3.4.2 Quantitative Research

According to Shaukat (1998) a quantitative method is applicable where the aim of the research is to ascertain how many, what and where. In order to provide answers to investigations the quantitative approach relies on the use of predetermined response categories by means of standard data collection
instruments such as structured and semi-structured interviews. Standardised collection instruments enhance the reliability of findings and allow for generalisation to a larger population.

3.4.3 Triangulation

Bryman (2011, p.1) states that triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings” It is a strategy for increasing the validity of evaluation and research findings (Mathison, 1988, sage journals). According to Denzin (1978) as cited by Todd (1979) triangulation is a combination of methodologies in a study of the same phenomenon.

Social science research is typically based on the use of a single research method, which may suffer limitations associated with the method or from its specific application. Triangulation therefore enhances the confidence of the results (Bryman, 2011). Cognisant of the need to have valid and reliable results in assessing the sustainability of the PRP programme the researcher combined the qualitative method and quantitative method. The qualitative approach was used because the study solicited information on people’s experiences, opinions, perceptions and attitudes about the sustainability of the PRP programme. The use of an interview schedule with open ended questions meant that non-numeric data was collected.

The quantitative approach was also used. The questionnaire had some predetermined answers which produced numerical data. Respondents were asked to give responses based on scaled responses, where answers had to be chosen from a list provided on the questionnaire, the likert-style rating scale. The collected data was coded and converted to numerical data and analysed using the statistical package of social scientists (SPSS). Frequencies and percentages were calculated, graphs, charts and tables tabulated in order to come up with research results, conclusions and recommendations. Using the two approaches was meant to enhance the validity of the findings and overcoming the weaknesses and biases arising from the use of one method.
Wright (1995) as cited in Shaukat (1998, p.10) argues that qualitative methods have the greater strength in the area of theory generation, while quantitative methods are most useful for testing the generalisability of particular factors. The qualitative and quantitative methods were applied in the research in order to strengthen the results, a strategy called triangulation.

3.5 Population and Sampling

Cox (2003, p.1) defines the target population for a survey “as the entire set of units for which the findings of the survey are meant to generalise. The target population for the study was 197.

These beneficiaries comprised of Home Based Care (HBC) members, Orphans and other vulnerable children and orphans living in poor households. The population also included two managers, one at Head office and one from the province and three informants in the district.

Semi structured interviews were conducted for the key informants who were the chief/headman, agricultural extension worker, care facilitator or Sabhuku. Focus group discussions used interview guides to guide respondents to give additional information that could be used to verify information given through questions with pre-determined answers. The focus group discussions were composed of beneficiaries who had not been interviewed.

3.5.1 Sampling

According to (Trochim, 2006 p.1) “sampling is the process of selecting units (e.g. people, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample, results can be generalised to the population from which they were chosen”. The sample can only be representative when it is an accurate proportional representative of the population under study. The sample for the study comprised of beneficiaries of the PRP based on convenience sampling and judgment sampling techniques.
Tabled below is the sample breakdown of the categories of those interviewed.

Table 3: Sample Breakdown

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Sample</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Sampled</th>
<th>Method of Data Collected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficiary</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Informants: composed of:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- community leader</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Agric extension officers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- care facilitators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussions</td>
<td>5 groups of 8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Interview guides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composed of beneficiaries and non-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beneficiaries not included in interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Interview guides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One head office</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One at the province</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.2 Sample Size

To calculate the sample size the researcher used the sample size calculator on [http://www.surveystem.com/sscalc.htm](http://www.surveystem.com/sscalc.htm) where you enter a confidence interval of 5% and a population of 197. Using a confidence level of 95% and a target population for Takavarasha of 197 beneficiaries the calculated sample size was 130. However, because of time constraints and logistical problems of the overall data collection process a sample of 100 was perceived to be manageable.
3.5.3 Sampling Methods

New Age International (1979, p15) states that “Samples can either be probability samples or non-probability samples”. Probability samples are based on simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster area sampling. Non-probability samples are based on convenience sampling, judgment sampling and quota sampling techniques. In probability sampling, each element has a known probability of being introduced in the sample.

The researcher did not employ probability sampling in the study because of the geographical spread of the beneficiaries and the fact that beneficiaries were Home Based Care Clients and some who were chronically ill could have died or moved from their original area to live with relatives. Applying probability sampling to such a population would be a logistical nightmare and costly. The study therefore employed non-probability sampling based on convenience sampling and judgment sampling techniques.

3.5.3.1 Non-Probability Sampling

Deliberate sampling or purposive sampling was used in deliberately selecting units in the population. Because of the geographical spread of the respondents, easily accessible beneficiaries were chosen. Purposive sampling that is judgment sampling was used in selecting the key informants who were community leaders, the chiefs, headman or Sabhuku and the Agricultural Extension Officers and Care Facilitators. The study involved key informants to solicit information on the targeting, management and continuity of the programme because they are the Government representatives in the community. The care facilitators were important because of their daily involvement with the beneficiaries. The study selected population members who were good prospects for accurate information.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The study relied on two sources of data, the primary source and the secondary source. (Shaukat 1998, p.11) states that “data can be collected by several
means”. The study administered interview guides for the focus groups and managers and questionnaires for beneficiaries and key informants to collect data in assessing the sustainability of the PRP programme in Takavarasha of Chivi.

3.6.1 Secondary Data Sources

“Data that has been collected from a source that has been already published in any way is secondary data” (Gulnazahmad, 2010 p.2). This is data published for previous works and not specifically collected for the current study. This data may be less valid but getting it is easier and possible where primary data is difficult to get.

Secondary data were obtained mainly from internal and external sources of the organization, the electronic media and internet made availability of secondary data readily available. Internal sources comprised of annual reports, strategic plans, PRP project documents and the Red Cross website. External sources included PRP reports of other organizations, DFID briefing papers and newspaper reports. However, secondary data did not provide answers for the study and some of it was outdated and its accuracy could not be verified, hence the need for primary data.

3.6.2 Primary Data Sources

Primary data are data that is collected and is relevant to the study and research problem. There are a number of methods that can be used to collect primary data (Ghauri et al 1995 cited in Shaukat 1998, p.11) summarised primary data sources as observation and interviews, which included mailed questionnaires with open-ended or closed-ended questions on which respondents give answers, phone interviews where questions are asked over the phone and personal interviews which are face-to-face interviews with respondents.

The researcher, however, used the scheduled interviews, comprising of questionnaires and focus group discussions. Questionnaires were administered to
beneficiaries and key informants and interview guides to focus groups and management. All the three tools were both quantitative and qualitative and structured, semi-structured and unstructured questions were used. This was done to allow for the triangulation of the results.

The researcher was assisted by one enumerator who also helped as a moderator for the focus group discussions. The enumerator was familiar with the questionnaire since he had been involved in the pilot test. The advantage of questionnaires in the study was that it was relatively cheap and could be administered to a number of people in shorter time than anticipated despite the fact that more time had been allocated per interview because the respondents were mostly HIV/Aids patients.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussions were also used to collect data. These interviews were done with the help of a moderator in a non-structured and relaxed environment under a tree. Groups comprised of 8 people each. Questions were posed to the group and individuals were given an opportunity to express their views, one at a time. The purpose of such interviews was to gain insight by listening to a group of people involved in the project and recording the responses. The only challenge was to ensure that the group was homogenous, so as to facilitate a free discussion and avoid conflict among group members.

3.7 Data Analysis

The analysis of data required a number of closely related operations such as establishment of categories, application of categories to the raw data through coding, tabulation and then drawing statistical inferences. Tabulation was done and the classified data was put in the form of tables. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientists) was used to analyse the data. The collected data was converted to numerical data and analysed using the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS). Frequencies and percentages
were computed and presented in the form of tables, graphs and pi-charts and these were used as the basis for the research conclusions.

### 3.8 Research Procedure

#### 3.8.1 Reliability and Validity of data

“Validity is the quality of a research that makes it trustworthy and scientific” (Gulnazahmad 2010, p.2). It is the use of scientific methods in research to make it logical and acceptable. The researcher collected primary data using both qualitative and quantitative research using a 95% confidence interval. The sample was representative of the target population making the data valid for the entire population. The use of a variety of research methods for collecting data enhanced the validity of the research results.

Validity was enhanced by carrying out a pilot test of the questionnaire before the full scale research. This was done to ensure that the questions solicited the responses that would answer the research question. The pilot test was done with the assistance of the research assistance. Any ambiguities were revisited and corrected and this assisted the researcher and the assistant on the correct way of asking questions in line with the research objectives.

“Reliability is the certainty that the research is true enough to be trusted” (Gulnazahmad, 2010. 3). It refers to the stability, accuracy and precision of measurement. Reliability depends on well documented procedures which can be repeated with the same results over and over again. Reliability of the study findings was enhanced by discussing with the management of the programme at Head Office, who gave an insight into the programme and assisted on how to structure questions which would provide answers to the research problem.
3.9 Research Limitations and Research Assumptions

The study encountered a number of limitations. The distance between Harare and Chivi, approximately 362km presented some logistical challenges. Financial constraints could not permit the researcher to be present for the whole two weeks of the research. The geographical spread of the area could not permit the researcher to be present at all the households thereby limiting the number of questionnaires since the enumerator needed supervision.

Time and financial constraints limited the study only to Chivi although the programme was conducted in other districts. The experiences of the other NGOs like FAO, River of life, IDE, ICRAF, ICRISAT and CYMMYT and Tree of Africa which conducted similar PRP programmes could not be investigated, thereby limiting views and opinions on the programme. Views of the donors who funded the programme like DFID could also have helped in substantiating the views and opinions expressed in the study.

The CEO for the Zimbabwe Red Cross resigned in June, 2012 and this led to a number of changes in management structures in Masvingo. The development presented its own problems with the new management being suspicious of what information was being collected for the study. This delayed the start of the research as clarifications had to be given first.

The researcher conducted the research with the following assumptions:
- Beneficiaries who were Home based care clients could have moved from their original places of stay to go and stay with relatives, they could have migrated to cities to search for employment if they felt better or could have died hence the researcher used non-probability sampling method where convenience or judgment sampling was applied.
- Time taken with each beneficiary in administering the questionnaire could be limited due to sickness.
- Some of the beneficiaries could be too sick to withstand an interview.
The researcher had to allocate more time for each interview to take care of the condition of the interviewee, implying the research took for time that normal per each beneficiary.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Ethical considerations relate to both the participants and the researcher (Callahan and Hobbs 2010). Participants’ consent was sought before the research was conducted. The researcher sought consent by writing a letter of introduction to the participants informing them about the type of information being sought, why the information was required and what purpose it was to be used for and how they were expected to participate in the study. The letter also assured the participants of the confidentiality of the information collected and that their identity was not required. (See appendix 2).

The researcher was aware of the need to avoid bias in interpreting the study findings. “bias is a deliberate attempt to either hide what has been found in the study or highlight something disproportionately to its true existence”.(Dawson, Kothari and Kumar 2002). Use of information in a way that directly or indirectly adversely affects the respondents is unethical. The letter from the organization granting permission to carry out the study emphasised the issue of the use of collected information (See appendix 1).

3.11 Pilot Test

Rothgeb (1978 p.1) defines a pilot test as “dress rehearsals of a full survey operation that are used to determine whether problems exist that need to be addressed prior to putting the production survey in the field”. The process was done to refine the questionnaire in terms of the length, structure and wording and any ambiguous questions being corrected before the survey.

A pilot survey was carried out before administering the questions to the respondents. A group of 10 beneficiaries and two informants, the Agricultural extension officer and the headman were involved for the pre-test at Chivi rural
where the researcher and the enumerator were staying. The focus group questionnaire was also pre-tested, and people in the group were different from those who were interviewed as individual respondents. Two managers were pre-tested one at Chivi Rural and the programme assistant at Head Office. A number of questions had to be revised because the interviews were held in Shona. Proper choice of words which would make sense to the beneficiaries had to be used and sometimes it was not easy to do the translations.

3.12 Chapter Summary

The chapter focused on the research methodology used in seeking to answer the research questions. A combination of tools and techniques were used in the case study in order to strengthen the results. A representative sample of the most beneficiaries was selected for the study.
CHAPTER 4 : RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings and analysis with reference to the research question as set out in chapter one. The results are analysed with reference to the concepts discussed in the literature review. The analysis is based on the answers from the administered questionnaires and focus group discussions used in primary data collection. These responses were interpreted and presented in the form of tables, pie-charts and graphs.

4.2 Response Rate by Category of respondents

Table 4.1 shows the response rate of the administered questionnaires, these are the people who actually completed the questionnaires. The results show a total response rate of 67.5%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>Total Questionnaires Sent out</th>
<th>Questionnaires Returned</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Beneficiaries</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Key Informants</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two types of questionnaires were administered to two groups of respondents, beneficiaries of the programme and key informants, and interview guides were administered to the two managers and 3 group discussions.
A total of 108 questionnaires were sent out, 100 for the beneficiaries, 3 for the key informants, 3 for management and 3 for the focus group discussions as indicated in table 4.1 above.

Out of the 100 questionnaires sent out for the beneficiaries, 65 were returned, giving a 65% response rate, and for the key informants, 3 were returned, giving a 60% response rate and for the focus groups, three groups managed to have discussions, giving a 60% response rate and the two managers had a 100% response rate. According to Trochim (2006), a response rate of above 60% is considered to be representative. Management, key informants and focus groups have a 100% return rate because they were easy to locate and we had to arrange for an appointment to see them. The key informants interviewed were the Care facilitator, the Headman/ Sabhuku and an Agritex Official. Three group discussions were held instead of the five because of time constraints and the difficulty in mobilising the groups. It was noted that some of the beneficiaries had moved from Chivi, in search of employment.

The information from the key informants, focus group discussions and from the managers was used to help explain responses from the beneficiaries. Information from the key informants gave a bigger picture of issues under study and group discussions reinforced information collected from the beneficiaries. The questionnaires from the key informants and managers are not part of the 65 being analysed, because they were not beneficiaries. The focus groups were also mixed with non-beneficiaries hence not included.

4.3 General Information

General information about the respondents was requested which included their gender, age, occupation, level of education and size of household.
Figure 4.1 Gender and Age of Participants

Figure 4.1 shows the summary of gender and age of the respondents. Out of the 65 beneficiaries 45% were female and 20% were male, demonstrating the common assertion that women are more active in community based activities than men. The ages of the 65 respondents were as follows, 14 were between the ages of 20-30 and made 21.5% of the respondents and 17 were between 31-40 years of age and made 26.6% and 21 were between 41-50 years and made 32.3% of respondents and this group was the largest. Those above 50 were 13 and were 20% of respondents.

Morestin, Grant and Ridde,(2009,p.7), emphasise that in a research, beneficiary selection should be done by using administrative processes, community based processes and mixed processes in order to ensure that all deserving groups are included. The PRP programme was, however, unique in that it focused on HIV and AIDs patients and therefore the selection was based on being HIV positive.

However, in the literature reviewed it was noted that (Tango 2009) developed household community level indicators for women’s empowerment. Some of the indicators could be used to reveal women’s willingness to participate in projects. These are women’s control over income, knowledge of legal rights, ownership of assets, freedom from violence and domestic decision making would make a woman want to participate in a project. However in the PRP women were more than willing to reveal their HIV status because of the benefits of the programme.
Although no prescriptions were noted in the literature regarding the age of participants, it is the researcher’s view that those above 65 would be less active because of age although they would be beneficiaries.

Pollet (2007) noted that projects affect men and women differently, because they have different views, perceptions and are affected differently by a project. Therefore men’s and women’s views have to be sought before project implementation. Pollet (2007, p.59) asserts that women’s views should be sought separately because “in many cultures women’s voices are often not effectively present or heard in traditional meetings and workshops”.

4.3.1 Participants Level of Education

Figure 4.2 indicates the number of people who attained secondary and tertiary education.

![Level of Education](image)

**Figure 4.2 Level of Education**

The level of education also impacted on the quality of responses given by the respondents. At secondary school level, 48% attained Ordinary level certificate and at tertiary level only 1.5% had tertiary education, 9 % did not go to school and 40% had primary education.
The lack of education and degree of literacy within a household and the number of children not attending school is a poverty dimension used for beneficiary selection into a programme (Morestin, Grant and Ridde, 2009). However, the criterion for the PRP was HIV/AIDS patients.

Tango International (2009, p.61) states that “although many heads of households may not have considerable education, they recognise the value of education for all their children regardless of gender”.

4.3.2 Household

The sizes of the households of the respondents were as follows, the 1-3 category made 26.2% of the population, the 4-7 category was 46.2%, the 7-10 category made another 26.2% and households with more than 10 was 1.4% of the participants. The size of the households was a crucial factor with regards to the adequacy of the distributed food stuffs and agricultural inputs for the families and the manpower to work in the gardens. From the focus group discussions it was noted that even those households that appeared to be small could not have enough food after distributions because they would have visitors soon after the distributions, a phenomenon they called “kusisira”. Traditionally the extended family concept would imply sharing whatever was distributed. One might assume that this reduced the impact of the distributed inputs. According to (Heldman 2005, p.23) the process of planning and designing in the five stages of the
traditional project management is a repetitive process, where the project planners are supposed to go back to the drawing board and plan for such eventualities.

A household’s income in relation to its size is a poverty dimension that should be considered when selecting beneficiaries for the programme (Morestin, Grant and Ridde, 2009). The selection criterion considers an expenditure of $1.00 per day or less as poor.

Tango International (2009) noted that households with large families find it difficult to manage risk through savings. Women with a lot of children also find it difficult to participate in income generating projects.

4.4 Beneficiary Selection Criteria

Information on how respondents were selected into the programme was requested. Beneficiary selection a process of being able to select the deserving cases using the headman, care facilitators, referrals by the clinic, the HIV/AIDS infected and social welfare cases was investigated.

![Beneficiary Selection](image)

**Figure 4.4 Beneficiary Selection**

The findings above showed that 37% of the beneficiaries were selected into the programme by Care Facilitators, the locally trained volunteers who provide support for the sick, 17% were referred by the clinics through HIV screening and
testing, 19% were the HIV affected and 18% were referred by the headman. The Social Welfare referred 9%. This indicated that the highest percentage was referred by the Care Facilitators and this corroborates the discussion from the focus group discussion. The group discussions revealed that Care facilitators referred most of the beneficiaries most of whom would be undeserving relatives.

The percentage referred by the clinics and those who are HIV is exactly the same, meaning that this could be the same people since those referred by the clinic would have tested HIV positive. This could also be interpreted as a society with community cohesion where people know each other well. According to (Tango International 2009) this community would be suitable for implementing a community model programme where people form self-help groups to encourage sustainability. Such a community has what is called community cohesiveness.

The issue of beneficiary selection is a contentious one. Genuine cases were sometimes left out. In the literature review it was noted that different Organisations have different selection criteria although the poverty dimensions that are used are almost similar for poverty alleviation projects.

The discussion with the Programme Officer at Head Office confirmed that genuine cases of the needy left out would be difficult to include once the project started because the donors come with a package. The number of people to be supported was predetermined and based on available funding. This compromised project implementation as managers were not able to change the numbers of beneficiaries in the programme as the need increased.

(Morestin, Grant and Ridde 2009, p.7) acknowledged that “no strategy of identifying the poor is perfect”. (Tango International 2008, p.20) asserts that “Inadequate targeting also compromises programme sustainability especially where the marginalised groups are left out of the interventions that should benefit them” Although the selection criteria for the PRP was being HIV positive, one notes that being HIV does not mean that one is poor and cannot provide for themselves. A selection criteria with more actors involved is desirable.
Beneficiaries should not be stigmatised and the process must be seen to be transparent and legitimate.

4.5 Beneficiary Training

The study investigated whether beneficiaries were trained in the various aspects of the programme they were to embark on. Training included nutrition and gardening, improved nutrition, vegetable processing and preservation, marketing and marketing linkages, seed selection and seed preservation.

**Table 4.2 Beneficiary Training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Training</th>
<th>Was training useful?</th>
<th>Are you still using what you learnt?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes %</td>
<td>No%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Nutrition and gardening</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Improved nutrition</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Vegetable processing and preservation</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Marketing and Marketing linkages</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Seed selection</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Seed preservation</td>
<td>89.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above findings indicate that most of the respondents received training in the projects that they embarked on. Nutrition and gardening receiving a 100% yes on the usefulness of the project.

This indicated that 93.8% of the respondents were still using what they learnt from the programme three years after the programme ended. Gardening could still be used because it directly benefits the individual by having access to vegetables.
Marketing and market linkages scored the lowest with 75.4% indicating that the training was useful and 70.8% indicating that they were still using the knowledge gained.

The low percentage in the marketing and market linkages could be attributed to a poor road network and a very small market. According to Tango International (2009), this could have been an inappropriate project for the area. Tango International asserts that a market led project should be implemented in areas with strong institutions, accessible markets and various income generating opportunities.

It was noted that “training of beneficiaries enhances the social and economic conditions of the poor and makes beneficiaries active and productive members and group leaders” (www.fao.org). Training of beneficiaries therefore would enhance project implementation which might lead to programme sustainability. Trained beneficiaries would have acquired knowledge that they will continue to use even when supervision of the project ends.

Tango International (2009) adds another dimension of technical sustainability being important. It is noted that appropriate technology and training, availability of spare parts and maintenance services enhances sustainability. In an environment where spare parts are available, maintenance of machinery ensures continuity of the programme. The unavailability of spare parts and lack of maintenance of machinery would lead to the collapse of the project.

4.6 Stakeholder Consultations

Information on whether beneficiaries were consulted as to the type of programme to implement was investigated.
Figure 4.5 Consultations before Programme Implementation

Figure 4.5 above indicate that 87.2% of the respondents were consulted before the programme was implemented and 12.8% indicated they were not consulted. The study could not establish why they were not consulted. It could be that they were not present when the consultations were done because the respondents were HIV positive clients who could have been bed ridden or in hospital. From the focus group discussions it was indicated that the “consultations” were held as sensitisation meetings.

The community was informed of a programme that was to be implemented. No opportunity was given to discuss with the donors what types of programmes were appropriate for them. As already stated, donor programmes are predetermined. DFID (2007 p.1) states that the PRP was “an innovative effort to implement support through NGOs on a large scale in a situation of rapid economic decline, using a range of simple technologies and a learning approach”. The same approach was applied to all the areas with different agro-ecological conditions where over 30 NGOs were involved. The approach could have been appropriate to some areas and not the dry areas of Chivi. Maize seed crops were given to beneficiaries in Chivi which is dry as echoed by Scoones (1996), who commented that Chivi generally has poor land quality and experiences regular droughts.
The ADB Handbook (2001, p.3) is of the view that “the performance of a project is enhanced by consultation and evidence shows that participation is an important means whereby the quality, impact and sustainability of development policies and projects or programmes can be enhanced”. Ownership of a project by the community is important. Communities should have a buy-in from the start of the programme in order to achieve sustainability.

Tango International (2009) adds another dimension of the importance of involving Government as a stakeholder. Political sustainability is a dimension that involves Government commitment and a political environment that will enable programme continuity is desirable.

**4.7 Management and Monitoring**

The beneficiaries were requested to give their opinion on the management of the programme. The study investigated beneficiaries views and on how the programme was managed.

![Figure 4.6 Monitoring and Evaluation](image)

The above figure illustrates the different perceptions that the beneficiaries had about the management of the programme. Among the 65 beneficiaries, 38 thought the management of the programme was good and this was 58% of the
population, 20 of the 65 thought the management was very good and these made 31% of the population and 7 out of the 65 thought the management was excellent and these made 11% of the population.

The focus group discussions, however, revealed that managers’ visits were not as frequent as expected. Managers used to visit monthly. However literature on management of projects is silent about the importance of managers in the effectiveness of project management. It was noted that in the PMBOK the area of a project manager is “terra incognita”, that is an unknown area.

However Tango International (2009, p.10) brings another dimension to monitoring where it was noted that, “direct supervision by the donors allows more bottom-up project design, involving stakeholders and project participants at every stage of the process”. The discussions also revealed that inputs for the programme (that is fertilisers, seeds and insecticides) were always delivered late, when the season had already started an indication of problems with supervision of programme activities.

The African Development Bank (2001, p. 20) emphasised that project monitoring should be frequent, intense and of high quality. Supervision should not just be for the technical and financial aspects of the project, but also for assessing project results and addressing problems, issues or design flaws affecting the project” Supervision also allows management to get feedback from the stakeholders and also gives an opportunity for monitoring stakeholder participation.

4.8 Sustainability of the Programme

In order to establish the sustainability of the programme, the study investigated how many of the beneficiaries continued with the programme activities and were benefiting from the programme three years after external funding of the programme ended. The benefits were whether they experienced an increase in food production, saved any seeds, had increased knowledge on farming, were able to pay school fees, improved cash flows, purchased poultry and livestock, improved soil fertility and gained skills through training.
The figure above indicates that 95% of the beneficiaries acknowledged that they benefited from the programme and 5% indicated that they did not benefit. The study however could not establish the reasons for those who participated and did not benefit from the programme. It can be assumed that these could be some of the beneficiaries not happy with the beneficiary selection or beneficiaries who did not get enough inputs and were disgruntled by the programme.

Table 4.3 Benefits of the Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Increased food production</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Save Seeds</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Increased knowledge of farming activities</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Other indicators</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Paid school fees</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Improved cash flows</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Purchased poultry or livestock</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Improved soil fertility</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Gained skills through training</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research findings could not establish the monetary values of the benefits to the respondents because the programme was implemented during the Zimbabwean dollar era. Respondents could not remember how much money they made and they tried to convert the values to US dollars. Use of US dollars in the research could distort the findings hence they were excluded.

Table 4.3 indicates that respondents benefited a lot in agricultural related activities. Of the 65 respondents 30, which was 47% indicated that they realised an increased food production. Of the 65 respondents 46, which was 71% benefited in saving seeds. On knowledge in agriculture 94% respondents indicated that they gained knowledge in agriculture. Payment of school fees also indicated a high number of beneficiaries with 57% benefiting. The lowest was “other indicators” which were not identified. On the improvement of cash flows only 8% benefited and this low figure could be attributed to the fact that it was difficult to convert the Zimbabwean dollars to United States dollars as previously stated. Only 25% purchased poultry and another 25% indicated they gained in improved soil fertility. Skills were gained by 60% of the beneficiaries through training.

4.9 Knowledge Gained by the Community

The table below shows the rating of knowledge gained by beneficiaries in the different project activities.
Figure 4.8 Rating of Knowledge Gained by Community

The findings on knowledge gained by the community indicate that 40% of the respondents’ rate knowledge gained as good and 55% very good and 5% indicated knowledge was excellent for maize. Sweet potatoes had 30% as good, 60% as very good and 10% as excellent. Horticulture had 40% as good, 25% as very good and 35% as excellent. The high rating of horticulture could be due to the increase in agricultural activities in the rural areas. A lot of HIV groups were involved in horticultural activities where vegetables like butternuts, rape and tomatoes were sold to the communities as income generating activities.

Seed collection had 45% as good, 50% as very good and 5% as excellent. Marketing had 60% as good, 35% as very good and 5% as excellent. The interview with the manager in Masvingo revealed that the rating of 5% for maize, sweet potatoes, seed selection and marketing could be due to the fact that the beneficiaries were HIV positive and could have missed some of the training sessions due to ill health hence knowledge gained was compromised.

FAO emphasized the need for training beneficiaries in order to enhance their social and economic conditions, make beneficiaries active members of their communities and let them decide on the content of the training. (www.fao.org/docrep/007/ad817e/ad817e0c.html).
4.10 Continuation of Programme Activities

Research findings in figure 4.9 revealed that 86.2% of the respondents continued with the programme activities and 13.8% did not continue after the programme funding ended. Those who did not continue stated that although they gained knowledge from the programme they did not have the funds for the required inputs. The 86.2% who indicated that they continued with the programme meant that they continued using the knowledge gained and not the activities. The focus group discussions revealed that boreholes and machinery for the gardens had broken down. Garden activities could not continue as water was not easily available and the cost of inputs was prohibitive. The Health status of the beneficiaries was also an inhibiting factor. Such indications reveal that the programme was not sustainable. Sustainability plans should be introduced early in the project design stage.

In the literature review it was noted that there are other dimensions of sustainability which should be considered and planned for during programme design for a programme to be sustainable. IFAD (2009) gives examples of these dimensions as political sustainability, social sustainability, economic and financial sustainability. Programme designers for the PRP programme should have conducted a risk analysis of the above dimensions before programme implementation.
4.11 Exit Strategies

The Figure below indicates the percentage of beneficiaries who were aware of exit strategies for the programme.

![Exit Strategies Pie Chart]

**Figure 4.10 Exit Strategies**

Research findings in figure 4.10 reveal that 83% of the respondents were aware of the exit strategies, 9% were not aware and 8% did not know what an exit strategy was. Hall (2012) stressed that a strategy is needed to complete the project and get the best value from the work that had been funded.

The research findings clearly indicate that the respondents did not know what an exit strategy was by the responses they gave. The 83% who indicated that they were aware of an exit strategy mentioned the training they were given as an exit strategy. From the group discussions the beneficiaries thought that being trained by AREX was an exit strategy.

An exit strategy should be gradual and withdrawal should be done when a project or community achieves a certain criteria within the project plan for exit. The researcher could not establish if an exit strategy existed as this did not come out during discussions with key informants and the focus group discussions.
The lack of an exit strategy for the programme negatively impacted on the sustainability of the activities funded. Beneficiaries were not aware of the strategy implying that weaning them from the programme made them just as vulnerable as they were. Hall (2012, p.1) emphasised that, “an exit strategy is planning needed to complete the project and get the best value from the work that has been funded.”

4.12 Challenges of Programme Implementation

Beneficiaries managed to identify a number of challenges they experienced during programme implementation as indicated below.

Table 4.4 Challenges in Programme Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Beneficiary Selection</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>69.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Distribution of inputs</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>87.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Number of times officials visited the programmer areas</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.Any other (specify)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research findings in table 4.4 above indicate that 87.6% of the beneficiaries noted distribution of inputs as a challenge. This came out in the group discussions where it was pointed out that inputs especially seeds and fertilisers were distributed mid-season when the crop was already failing. This was mentioned as one of the reasons for crop failure leading to project not achieving the intended objectives. Beneficiary selection was identified by 45 out of the 65, which was 69.2% of the respondents as one of the challenges of the programme.

From the group discussions, beneficiary selection is a contentious issue as some of the beneficiaries accused some managers of nepotism and favoritism in selecting beneficiaries.
Management also pointed out that beneficiary selection was not easy as most of the beneficiaries were referred by clinics, care facilitators or social welfare. This meant that management had no control on beneficiary selection as noted earlier.

Tango (2009) noted that field studies revealed a lack of M and E practices in project management. M and E would provide information on programme progress and the extent of project achieving sustainable outcomes.

4.13 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed and presented research findings on the 65 beneficiaries and 3 key informants who were interviewed and discussions with 2 managers and 3 groups. The findings included the size of the household and its effects on the inputs for the beneficiaries, the selection of beneficiaries, training of beneficiaries, stakeholder consultations, management of the programme and sustainability of the programme and usage of knowledge gained in 2009, years after the programme ended.

The management of the project also appeared not to have followed through the five stages of project management as it came out from the focus group discussions that the monitoring of the programme was not as frequent as expected considering the health status of the beneficiaries.

The knowledge gained by the beneficiaries was also assessed and it was found that a lot was learnt and still being used. The challenges of the programme from the beneficiaries’ point of view were also discussed.
CHAPTER 5 : CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The Chapter presents conclusions and recommendations of the study. The study sought to assess the sustainability of the protracted relief programme implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society between January 2005 and December 2009. The conclusions and recommendations given below were derived from the answers given by the participants. Areas of further study are also discussed.

5.2 Summary of Findings and Conclusions

Major conclusions of the study which were drawn in line with the objectives set out in chapter one.

5.2.1 Stakeholder Consultations

The first objective of the study was to identify the extent to which the consultations were done with stakeholders to determine the programme activities that increased food output and eliminate poverty. Although the beneficiaries stated that they were consulted, there is evidence that the consultations were just to inform them that there was a pre-determined programme coming to their area and not for them to decide the type of programme suitable for them.

5.2.2 Beneficiary Identification

The second objective of the study was to find out how beneficiaries were identified for the programme.

There is evidence that there was no participative beneficiary selection but selection was done by the Care Facilitators with 37% which was the highest
figure. Issues of favouritism, came out as some of the beneficiaries were undeserving.

5.2.3 Training for Beneficiaries

The third objective was to establish if there was any form of training for the beneficiaries before the start of the programme. There is overwhelming evidence that beneficiaries were trained and the training was useful and the beneficiaries were still using the knowledge gained from the training although they were not actively involved in the programme activities. The beneficiaries did not continue with the programme activities because of lack of water in Chivi for gardens and prohibitive cost of inputs which indicates a lack of an exit strategy.

5.2.4 Monitoring and Support given by Red Cross Management

Management of the programme was highly rated by the beneficiaries but however evidence from the group discussions revealed that inputs always came late in the season throughout the four years of the project. Chivi generally has poor land quality and experiences regular droughts and hence farming should take advantage of the early rains to be meaningful justifying the need to receive inputs in time.

5.3 Research Proposition Validation

The study sought to test the following proposition:
The protracted Relief Programme implemented by the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society over the period January, 2005 to December 2009 was not sustainable.

The research findings are in agreement with the proposition. This study focused mainly on the continuity of the programme after external funding ended. The evidence on the ground however indicated that the programme activities ended when the funding ended. Figure 4.9 revealed that 86.2% continued with the programme, but this continuation referred to use of knowledge and not activities
because the cost of inputs was prohibitive. The knowledge acquired could only be used if funds for inputs were availed.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are being made in accordance with the research findings.

5.4.1 Put in place a mixed beneficiary selection process

A mixed beneficiary process where the community and the programme administrators have an input will minimize the entry of undeserving people into the programme.

5.4.2 Make training an on-going process

Training should be an on-going process and not a once off activity. Beneficiaries need to be reminded throughout the programme on important information needed to run the programme.

5.4.3 Identify stakeholders, needs, interest and power

Knowing stakeholders enhances the implementation of projects. This is done to have buy-in of all the stakeholders.

5.4.4 Strengthen management of the programme

Management need to be more involved in the planning of the programme and not to accept pre-determined programmes. Planning is a core process in project management.

5.4.5 Put in place an exit strategy

An exit strategy should be part of planning. The exit plan would ensure that the benefits of the programme funding would not be lost when the programme ends.
According to IFAD (2009, p.49) the absence of an exit strategy is a major constraint to programme sustainability.

5.4.6 Encourage pulling of resources

The beneficiaries of the programme were vulnerable and poor. They therefore did not have the draught power required for the agricultural activities. Lack of labour meant that other arrangements had to be made, like “nhimbe” for some of the households to be able to provide labour for field work.

5.5 Areas for Further Study

The literature review pointed at the lack of an explicit theory in project management. This is an area that needs further study as many authors have tried over the years to come up with a theory agreeable to project management practitioners.

The role of a project manager needs to be investigated further. Literature review noted that there is silence about the role of a project manager.
REFERENCES


Limited. Available at: <www.pearsoned.co.uk/saunders> [Accessed 15 August 2013].


74. The Zimbabwe Red Cross Act Chapter 17-08 of 1981.


82. www.businessdictionary.com/definition/research-design.html> 2013

APPENDIX 1

5th May, 2013

Eunice Khosa
105 Westwood Drive
Westwood
Harare

Dear Madam,

RE : REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH WITHIN THE ZIMBABWE RED CROSS SOCIETY

The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society is pleased to learn that you would like to conduct a research within the organisation. We would like to inform you that your request to conduct the research has been granted.

The manager for Masvingo where you would like to conduct the research has been informed. He will assist you with identifying the beneficiaries and care facilitators.

We hope to receive a copy of your document for use by the Red Cross Movement and sincerely hope that all the information collected will be used for academic purposes only and look forward to getting new ideas on how to manage sustainable projects.

L. Goteka
Acting Secretary General
APPENDIX 2

INTRODUCTORY SURVEY LETTER

Dear Respondent, I am enrolled at the University of Zimbabwe Graduate School of Management and as part of the requirements of the programme I am conducting a research on “AN ASSESSMENT OF THE SUSTAINABILITY OF THE FOOD SECURITY-PROTRACTED RELIEF PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTED BY NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION IN ZIMBABWE: A CSE FOR THE ZIMABWE RED CROSS SOCIETY JANUARY 2005 TO DECEMBER, 2009.” To accomplish this task I have to choose a number of people who were involved in the programme to answer some questions regarding the programme. You are one of those selected and I am asking you to kindly accept to go through the questionnaire with the interviewer. Please feel free to give any information you feel is necessary. All information will be treated with the strictest confidence and will be used for the dissertation only. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned if you have any questions. My e-mail address is: eunicek@redcrosszim.org.zw. My mobile number is: 0773 364 002

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours Faithfully

E. Khosa
(Masters of Business Administration Student)
APPENDIX 3

BENEFICIARY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PROTRACTED RELIEF PROGRAMME FOR THE ZIMBABWE RED CROSS SOCIETY

INTRODUCTION

INSTRUCTIONS

a) Please answer all questions.

b) Respond by ticking in the appropriate box where applicable, and by explaining where space is provided.

c) You are not required to write your name.

SECTION A – DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DATA OF BENEFICIARIES

1. Sex
   (a) Female
   (b) Male

2. Age
   (a) 20 – 30 years
   (b) 31 – 40 years
   (c) 41 – 50 years
   (d) Above 50 years

3. Education Level
   (a) no school
   (b) Primary level
   (c) Ordinary level
d) Tertiary level
4. Marital Status

a) Never married 1
b) Married 2
c) Divorced/separated 3
d) Widowed 4

5. Occupation

a) formal
b) informal

6. Total Number of People in Household

a) 0-3
b) 4-6
c) 7-10
d) 10+

SECTION B – BENEFICIARY SELECTION CRITERIA

7. Do you know how many people are in the programme?

a) Yes
b) No

8. If yes, how many people benefited in this area? Tick the appropriate

a) 0-25
b) 26-50
c) 50-75
d) 76-100
e) 101 and above
9. How were the beneficiaries selected into the programme? Please tick

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) chosen by headman</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) chosen by care facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) referred by the clinic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) HIV/AIDS affected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Social welfare cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Do you think the selection properly identified the needy?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. If no, how could this be improved? explain

a) ................................................................................................................

b) ................................................................................................................

SECTION C - TRAINING FOR BENEFICIARIES

12. Did you or any of your household members receive any form of training before embarking on the programme in the following? Tick the appropriate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of training</th>
<th>verification</th>
<th>Was training useful</th>
<th>Are you still using what you learnt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Nutrition gardening</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Improved nutrition</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Vegetable processing and preservation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Marketing and market linkages</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Seed selection</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. Who provided the training? Tick the appropriate

a) AREX
b) Red Cross
c) Other (specify)

SECTION D – STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATIONS

Please tick the appropriate box.

14. Do you know the objectives of the PRP programme?

a) Yes
b) No

15. Before the implementation of the programme where you consulted during project design as to the type of programme?

a) Yes
b) No

16. If yes how were you consulted?

a) through meetings
b) through surveys
c) through leaders
d) Through community representatives (headman/volunteers/care facilitators)
17. Do you believe you should have been involved?
   a) yes
   b) no

18. Why do you think so? Explain
   a) …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   b) …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

19. What do you think is the justification for this programme for this area? please tick.
   a) poor rainfall
   b) high unemployment
   c) High HIV/AIDS prevalence
   d) community cohesion

SECTION E – MANAGEMENT MONITORING
21. Do you know the manager of the programme?
   a) volunteer
   b) field officer
   c) provincial manager
   d) community cohesion

22. How often do they visit your area? Tick the appropriate
   a) once a week
   b) once a month
   c) once per quota
   d) once a year
23. Are there any procedures in place for airing your views or suggestions?

a) Yes
b) no

24. How do you rate the style of management?

a) Good
b) very good
c) Excellent
d) poor

SECTION E – SUSTAINABILITY OF THE PROGRAMME

25. Was the programme beneficial to those who participated?

a) Yes
b) no

26. What were the benefits of the programme? Did you manage to?

a) Increase food production
b) Save seeds
c) Increase knowledge of farming activities
d) Other indicators
e) Pay school fees
f) Improve cash flows
g) Purchase poultry or livestock
h) Improve soil fertility
i) Gain skills through the training
27. When the programme ended did you continue with the programme without outside assistance?

a) yes

b) no

28) If the answer is yes above explain
   a) ............................................................................................................................
   b) ............................................................................................................................
   c) ............................................................................................................................

29. Please rate the knowledge gained by the community of growing, processing and marketing the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CROP</th>
<th>GOOD</th>
<th>VERY GOOD</th>
<th>EXCELLENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) maize</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) sweet potatoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) horticulture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) seed collection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30. How much money did you make on average producing the following per month?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CROP</th>
<th>$ per month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) maize</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) sweet potatoes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) horticulture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) seed collection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
31. Besides the activities in the programme, what other livelihood activities are you involved in?

- a) livestock production
- b) making artefacts
- c) petty trade
- d) casual work (maricho)

32. Can you say you made more money from the programme activities than the other activities?

- a) Yes
- b) No

33. If yes above, by how much a month?

- a) $10-$20
- b) $21-$30
- c) $31-$40
- d) $41-$50
- e) $50+

34. Was there any exit strategy put in place by the Zimbabwe Red Cross when the programme ended?

- a) Yes
- b) No
35. If yes what arrangements are in place? explain
   a)...........................................................................................................
   b)...........................................................................................................
   c)...........................................................................................................

   LESSONS LEARNT

36. What can you say were the challenges in the implementation of this programme? Please tick

   a)Beneficiary selection               
   b)Distribution of inputs              
   c)Number of times officials visited the programme areas 
   d)Any other(specify)                  

37. What recommendations can you give to improve the implementation of such programmes in future?
   a)...........................................................................................................
   b)...........................................................................................................
   c)...........................................................................................................
   d)...........................................................................................................

   END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

   THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME
APPENDIX 4

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR KEY INFORMANT

Introduction:

I would like to find out from you your views on what can be done to ensure that the programme that you were involved in was sustainable. I would like to ask you some questions to that effect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Province</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. District</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. catchment area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INSTRUCTIONS

d) Please answer all questions.
e) Respond by ticking in the appropriate box where applicable, and by explaining where spaces are provided.
f) You are not required to write your name.

SECTION A – DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO ECONOMIC DATA OF THE KEY INFORMANT

5. Sex  
   (a) Female  
   (b) Male

6. Education Level  
   (a) Primary Level  
   (b) Ordinary level  
   (c) Advanced level  
   (d) Tertiary level
7. Position
   a) village head
   b) Care facilitator
   c) AREX

8. Marital Status
   a) Never married  1
   b) Married        2
   c) Divorced/separated  3
   d) Widowed        4

SECTION B: QUESTION GUIDE

9. Are you aware of the PRP programme that was being implemented?
   a) yes
   b) no

10. If so how involved were you in the designing of the programme? Explain
    a) ........................................................................................................................................
    b) ........................................................................................................................................
    c) ........................................................................................................................................

11. Did you get any training on the programmer activities?
    a) yes
    b) no

12. Do you know how many were trained in your area?
    a) yes
    b) no
13. If yes, how many people were trained in your area? Tick the appropriate

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
a) 0-25 | |
b) 26-50 | |
c) 50-75 | |
d) 76-100 | |
e) 101 and above | |

14. Who trained them?
1. AREX
2. Red Cross
3. Other Farmers

15. How do you rate the training? (In terms of benefits and adoption)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
a) good | |
b) very good | |
c) excellent | |
d) poor | |

16. If answer is poor above? Is there anyway the training can be improved? Explain briefly

a) 

b) 

c) 

d) 

17. What criteria were used to select beneficiaries into the programmer?

a) 

b) 

c) 

d) 

18. In your opinion was the selection targeting the needy?

a) 

b) 

c) 


19. How can the selection criteria be improved?
A) ...................................................................................................................
b) ...................................................................................................................
c) ...................................................................................................................

20. How do you rate the relationship between yourself and management in terms of implementation of the programmer? Tick the appropriate

<p>| | |</p>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Very good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. Where are any procedures in place for you to communicate your concerns, views, suggestions to management? Explain
A) ...................................................................................................................
b) ...................................................................................................................
c) ...................................................................................................................

22. Did you have any structures, procedures that allowed communication with management? Explain

a) .................................................................................................................
b) .................................................................................................................
c) .................................................................................................................

23. Suggest ways in which the programmer could be effectively managed?

a) .................................................................................................................
b) .................................................................................................................
c) .................................................................................................................
24. What can be done during programmer design to make sure that the programmer is sustainable?
   a) ........................................................................................................................................
   b) ........................................................................................................................................
   c) ........................................................................................................................................

25. Any other comments that you have with regards the programmer?
   a) ........................................................................................................................................
   b) ........................................................................................................................................
   c) ........................................................................................................................................

26. Finally in your opinion, what could be the major factor that determines programme sustainability?
   a) Beneficiary selection and targeting
   b) Training (needs identification and training content and delivery)
   c) Programme design (structure, monitoring and evaluation, management and consultants)
   d) Other, specify

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME
APPENDIX 5

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

Introduction:

I would like to find out from you your views on what can be done to ensure that the programme that you were involved in can be sustainable. I would like to ask you some questions to that effect.

Name of Interviewer…………………………………………………………………….

Place date and time of interview
……………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION A

1. Demographics of the respondents: I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

   a) no. of females
   b) no of males

3. Age of respondents (insert no. in the group)

   a) 20 – 30 years
   b) 31 – 40 years
   c) 41 – 50 years
   d) 50+
SECTION B: QUESTION GUIDE

3. What role did you play in designing the programmer?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................

4. Where you consulted as to the type of programmer to be implemented?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................

5. Were any assessments done before programmer implementation?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................

6. Would you have suggested a different programmer from the one implemented?
   Which one if any?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................

7. Did you get any training on how to carry out the programmer activities?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................

8. Are you still using the knowledge you gained?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................

9. Do you think the training could be improved and how?
   a) ..........................................................................................................................
   b) ..........................................................................................................................
   c) ..........................................................................................................................
   d) ..........................................................................................................................

10. How were beneficiaries selected into the programmer?
    a) ..........................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

11. in our opinion was the selection targeting the needy members of the Community?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................

12. How can the selection criteria be improved?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

13. How often do you interact with Managers from the offices?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

14. Where there any procedures or mechanisms in place for you to communicate your concerns, views, suggestions to Management?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

15. How could specific attention be given in designing programmes which are sustainable for communities?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

16. Any other ideas, comments or suggestions you can give us in the implementation of programmer?

a) ........................................................................................................................................
b) ........................................................................................................................................
c) ........................................................................................................................................

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME
APPENDIX 6
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MANAGEMENT

The purpose of this interview guide is to gather data that will assist in the Assessment of the sustainability of the Protracted Relief Programme implemented from 2005 to 2009.

1. How did you come up with the activities for the PRP Programme? (Please explain giving examples)

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2. How did you identify the deserving beneficiaries for the programme. (Please explain)

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3. What kind of training did you give the intended beneficiaries and how did you come up with the training material. (Please elaborate on the process)

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4. How did you monitor and support the activities of the programme. (Please explain and give tools used for monitoring)

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME